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THE SPIDERS (ARANEIDA) OF THE HAZEN CAMP AREA,
ELLESMERE ISLAND, NORTHWEST TERRITORIES,
CANADA (81°49'N, 71°18'W).

A TAXONOMICAL, BIOLOGICAL, AND ZOOGEOGRAPHICAL
INVESTIGATION

by

R. E. LEECH

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES IN
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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled The Spiders (Araneida) of the Hazen Camp Area, Ellesmere Island, Northwest Territories, Canada ($81^{\circ}49'N$, $71^{\circ}18'W$). A Taxonomical, Biological, and Zoogeographical Investigation submitted by R.E. Leech in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science.

THE SPIDERS (ARANEIDA) OF THE HAZEN CAMP AREA,
ELLESMERE ISLAND, NORTHWEST TERRITORIES,
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Abstract

About 20,600 spiders (Araneida) from Hazen Camp (81°49' N, 71°18'W), Ellesmere Island, Northwest Territories, Canada, were examined during the course of this study. These represent four families and thirteen species as follows:

Dictynidae, Dictyna borealis Pickard-Cambridge; Lycosidae, Pardosa glacialis (Thorell), Tarentula exasperans Pickard-Cambridge; Linyphiidae, Collinsia spitsbergensis (Thorell), Collinsia thulensis (Jackson), Cornicularia karpinskii (Pickard-Cambridge), Erigone psychrophila Thorell, Hilaira vexatrix (Pickard-Cambridge), Meioneta nigripes (Simon), Minyriolus pampia Chamberlin, Savignya barbata (Koch), Typhochraestus latithorax (Strand), and Thomisidae, Xysticus deichmanni Soerensen. The distribution of each species is listed by locality and is also mapped.

Detailed descriptions of the rare species are given. Detailed drawings of the structures useful for identification of each species and sex are presented. An analysis of the seasonal occurrence of the adults of each species in 1964 and partial results from 1963, showed that all the species were active during the first three weeks following the first day of spring melt, namely June 10 to June 30. This is most likely a phenomenon of all the arctic regions and can be readily exploited for arctic arachnological studies.

Solar escape orientation of Pardosa glacialis was analyzed for direction of escape in relation to the sun and

the observer. Reasons for the escape directions are given. The species Pardosa glacialis and Xysticus deichmanni were found to be parasitized by Hexamermis sp. (Nematomorpha, Mermithidae).

Nine species were found to inhabit the humid terrestrial environment, one was present in all environments, and three were found only in arid environments.

The zoogeographical data indicate that there were one or more refugia at or near the northern end of Ellesmere Island during the Wisconsin Glaciation and perhaps for the entire Pleistocene epoch. Some of the extant insects and spiders were present in these refugia, though most have immigrated recently to Hazen Camp and the environs from more southern localities.

It is proposed that spiders restricted to night shadow areas are possibly recent immigrants from the boreal or low arctic regions.

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Thanks are also extended to Drs. G.P. Holland and D.R. Oliver of the Entomology Research Institute in Ottawa for allowing me to start and complete this project at Lake Hazen; to Dr. G. Hattersley-Smith and the Defense Research Board of Canada for the use of Hazen Camp and its supplies; to Pilots and crewmen of the R.C.A.F. and Atlas Air Lines for flying me and my equipment to and from Lake Hazen; to the men of Alert and Eureka Weather Stations for accommodation and information about the areas during the summers of 1963 and 1964.

I thank Larry Law (Dominion Observatory, Ottawa), Leonard Hills (Geology Department, University of Alberta), and Guy Brassard (Queens University) for making collections in areas that I could not reach.

And I thank "Little Mike", the radio operator at Eureka Weather Base and Charles Harris, Edmonton Radio Ham Operator, for passing messages to and from Hazen Camp.

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Introduction

The spiders (Araneida) from the high Nearctic Region are poorly known in every respect -- distribution, number of species, natural history, and past history. Previous to this study, the largest single collection of spiders from such a northern location as Hazen Camp ($81^{\circ}49'N$, $71^{\circ}18'W$), Ellesmere Island, Northwest Territories, Canada, was the collection made by the Danish Peary Land Expedition of 1947-50, which collected 103 specimens of eight endemic species and one obviously introduced species (Braendegaard, 1960).

In the winter of 1898-99, the Second Expedition of the "Fram" overwintered at Rice Strait, between Ellesmere Island and Pim Island ($78^{\circ}34'N$, $74^{\circ}45'W$), (Bryce, 1910), and during the warmer season of 1899, the ship's doctor (my inference) collected some 15 specimens of spiders of seven, possibly eight, species (Strand, 1905, and Braendegaard, 1936).

Collections made by Oliver and others in 1961 and 1962 at Hazen Camp yielded a possible ten species of spiders with only five positive identifications (Turnbull, 1963).

The purpose of this thesis is to give a detailed account of the spiders from Hazen Camp. The account includes data on the taxonomy and natural history, and theories (based on an analysis of the evidence) of the zoogeographic history of the spiders and other Arthropoda at Hazen Camp.

This study began as one part of the program "Studies on Arctic Insects". I hope that this is the first step in a program that will attempt to study the entire Canadian Arctic Archipelago with as much interest and detail as has been done

at Hazen Camp.

Special Reference Note

The following references were examined during the course of the study, but were not used directly, hence are not referred to elsewhere in the text. For information on synonymies and taxonomic papers see Bishop and Crosby (1935, 1938), Crosby and Bishop (1931, 1933, 1936), Dondale (1964), Gertsch (1939, 1953), Locket and Millidge (1951, 1953), Petrunkevitch (1911), and Wiehle (1956). For information on distributions of spiders see Banks (1900), Braendegaard (1940, 1958), Chamberlin and Ivie (1947), Dahl (1928, 1933), Holm (1937a, 1937b, 1939, 1944, 1945, 1950, 1951, 1958c), Jackson (1930, 1938), Lenz (1897), Strand (1906), and Thorell (1875). For studies of solar orientation of arthropods see Papi (1955), Papi and Tongiorgi (1962-63, 1963), Tongiorgi (1963). For information on general biology of spiders see Bristowe (1958), Crompton (1950), Dondale (1961), and Hackman (1957). And for information about the Pleistocene epoch see Ericson et al. (1964) and Flint (1957).

The Study Area

Introduction

The general biology and taxonomy of spiders was studied during the summers of 1963 and 1964 at Hazen Camp, Ellesmere Island, Northwest Territories, Canada ($81^{\circ}49'N$, $71^{\circ}18'W$). This is approximately 150 air kilometres southwest of Alert, and is on Lake Hazen, the largest fresh water body (78x11 km) in the Queen Elizabeth Islands. The study area is on the mid northwest shore of Lake Hazen and extends along the shore for about 5 kilometres and away from the shore for about 3 kilometres (see figure 1, the map of the area). The confines are the Snow Goose River Delta, Blister Creek Delta, and Mt. McGill. The range of altitudes in the study area was from 158 to 1050 metres, and included the following ecological areas: clay plains and slopes; sand; gravel; alkaline clay; Dryas hummocks; Dryas-Kobresia tundra; marshes; muddy delta; gravel delta; boulder talus slopes; and springy slopes (based on Savile's personal notes of 1962, and Savile, 1964. See Savile, 1964, for details).

Biological work was started at Hazen Camp in 1957 and 1958 by John Powell (currently studying for a Ph.D. in Botany at the University of British Columbia), but entomological studies were not started until 1961 when Donald R. Oliver (Entomological Institute, Ottawa) did general collecting and pond ecology studies.

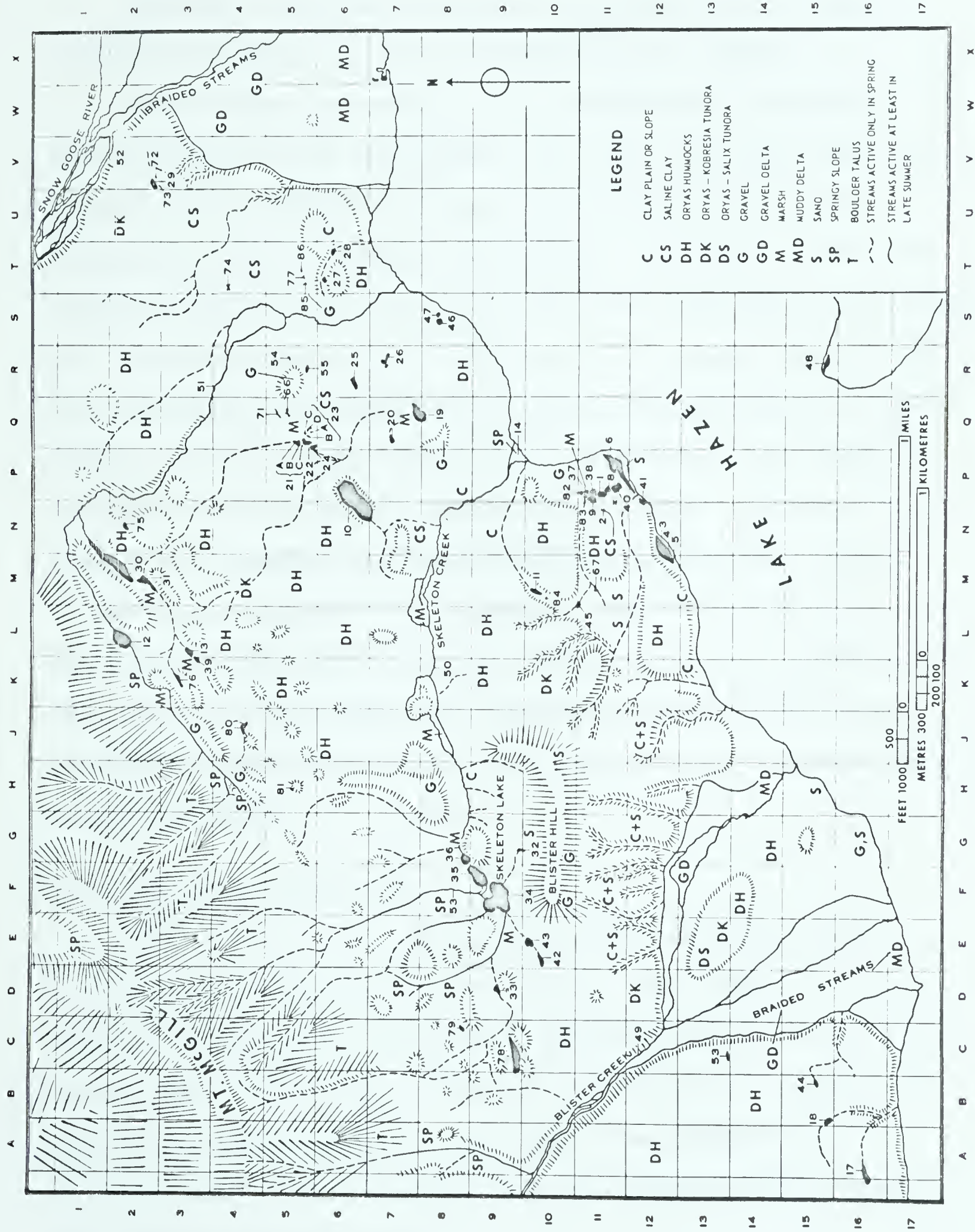


FIG. 1

The only comparable work on Arachnida done at such a northern latitude is that of Braendegaard, (1960).

Hazen Camp was opened as an International Geophysical Year station in the late summer of 1957, and since then, a great deal of information has been published about the environs of Hazen Camp and Lake Hazen. Christie (1962) has described the geology; Savile (1964) has discussed the ecology and vascular plants; Day (1964) and Yong et al. (1961, 1962) have discussed and analyzed the soil characteristics; Oliver (1963) has discussed the Insecta, Collembola, and Arachnida collected to the end of 1962; Jackson (1959, 1960) has discussed and analyzed the meteorological conditions; Powell (1961) has discussed the vegetation and microclimate; Harington (1960) has reported on snow and ice conditions for the winter of 1957-1958; and Hattersley-Smith (1964) has published a bibliography of "Operation Hazen", covering the years 1957-1963.

Soil and Soil Conditions

Soil samples were collected in 1963 from the major habitats as defined by Savile (1964). The depths for permafrost at 12 sites in mid August varied from 40.6 to 99.0 cm. with a mean of 73.5 cm. Yong et al. (1962) at a comparable period in 1962 reported a mean depth for permafrost of 51.0 cm. Day (1964) analyzed the soil samples and found four principal soil types.

Early in the season, just after the snow has melted, the ground surface becomes a veritable quagmire, but with the sun in view continuously, it becomes firm in two to three weeks except in marsh or pond depressions. The period when the snow and ice leaves the surface of the ground will be referred to in the text as "spring melt".

Very little of the surface soil is without frost-heave cracks. The cracks vary from 0.1 to 5 cm wide, from 1.5 to 40 cm deep, and from 10 cm to several metres long. Organic matter content of the soils varied from 0.3 to 19.6% with a mean of 4.1%. The pH was usually between 7.4 and 8.6. Soil temperature maxima at the surface were generally 7.5 to 16.5°C higher than air temperature maxima on sunny days, and minima were 2.5 to 5.5°C warmer on overcast days (Powell, 1961). On June 6, 1964, one day before the spring melt, I recorded the following temperatures in bright afternoon sun on a 20° south-facing slope:

2.5 cm above soil surface.....2.7°C

at surface.....6.3°C

2.5 cm below soil surface.....9.9°C.

In appearance, the soil is mostly sandy to sandy-clayey with moderate to sparse vegetation cover.

Vegetation

There are about 115 species of vascular plants recorded from the Lake Hazen region, but there are only a few numerically dominant ones. These are Salix arctica Pall.,

Dryas integrifolia M. Vahl., Kobresia myosuroides (Vill.) Fiori and Paol., Carex aquatilis Wahlenb. var. stans (Drej) Boott., Cassiope tetragona (L.) D. Don., and in restricted areas, Eriophorum Scheuchzeri Hoppe, and E. triste (Th. Fries) Hadac and Löve. The remaining plant species are widely and sparsely distributed throughout the study area.

Climate and Weather

Detailed records of the weather have been made for the years 1958, 1961, 1962, 1963, and 1964. The lowest winter temperature recorded by the minimum thermometer at Hazen Camp is -70.6°F (-57.0°C) during the winter of 1963-64 (personal record). Figure 2 is a graph of daily-recorded mean summer air temperatures at Hazen Camp, 100 metres from the lake shore, 1.8 m above the ground, and 161 m above sea level.

For the latitude, the summer temperatures are exceptionally high, often higher for longer periods than at many nearby coastal stations. The inland position of Lake Hazen accounts for the higher temperatures. The lake is in a very stable high pressure trough region, and is in the shadow of the Garfield Range to the north and northwest.

Precipitation at Lake Hazen is very light. Jackson (1959, p. 95) recorded 0.98 inches (2.48 cm) water equivalent during the period August, 1957 to August, 1958, and the station Alert, to the northeast on the coast,

recorded 4.52 inches (12.8 cm) during the same period.

Snowfall between September and May accounted for 91% of the precipitation at Lake Hazen.

Despite the low precipitation at Lake Hazen, considerable moisture is available for the plants and animals. During most summers (1964 was an exception) the melting of snow and ice from the surface is sufficiently slow that the ground surface is dry for only two weeks before the water from permafrost melting comes to the surface. As the permafrost water percolates to the surface, depressions that were full of water during the spring melt and which had dried up during the course of the summer, refill.

The wind speed averages at Lake Hazen are very low with over 76% of the yearly observations being 5 mph or less, 16% from 6-10 mph, and 8% from 11 mph or over (Jackson, 1959, p. 121). The majority of the winds come from the northeast, along the Lake Hazen trough (Jackson, 1959 p. 125).

Relative humidities in 1962 and 1963 were based on observations every 6 hours at 1.6 m above the ground, and indicate daily mean figures of 80-88% for June, and 76-80% for July and early August (Savile, 1964, p. 240), but were much lower during the summer of 1964 because of continuous high winds from the southwest. The prevailing low-speed winds permitted conditions of almost 100% relative humidity to exist at or near the surface where the shearing effect of the ground by friction on the wind caused little disturbance

Summer temperature chart of daily recorded means
at Hazen Camp for the years of 1958, 1961, 1962, 1963,
1964

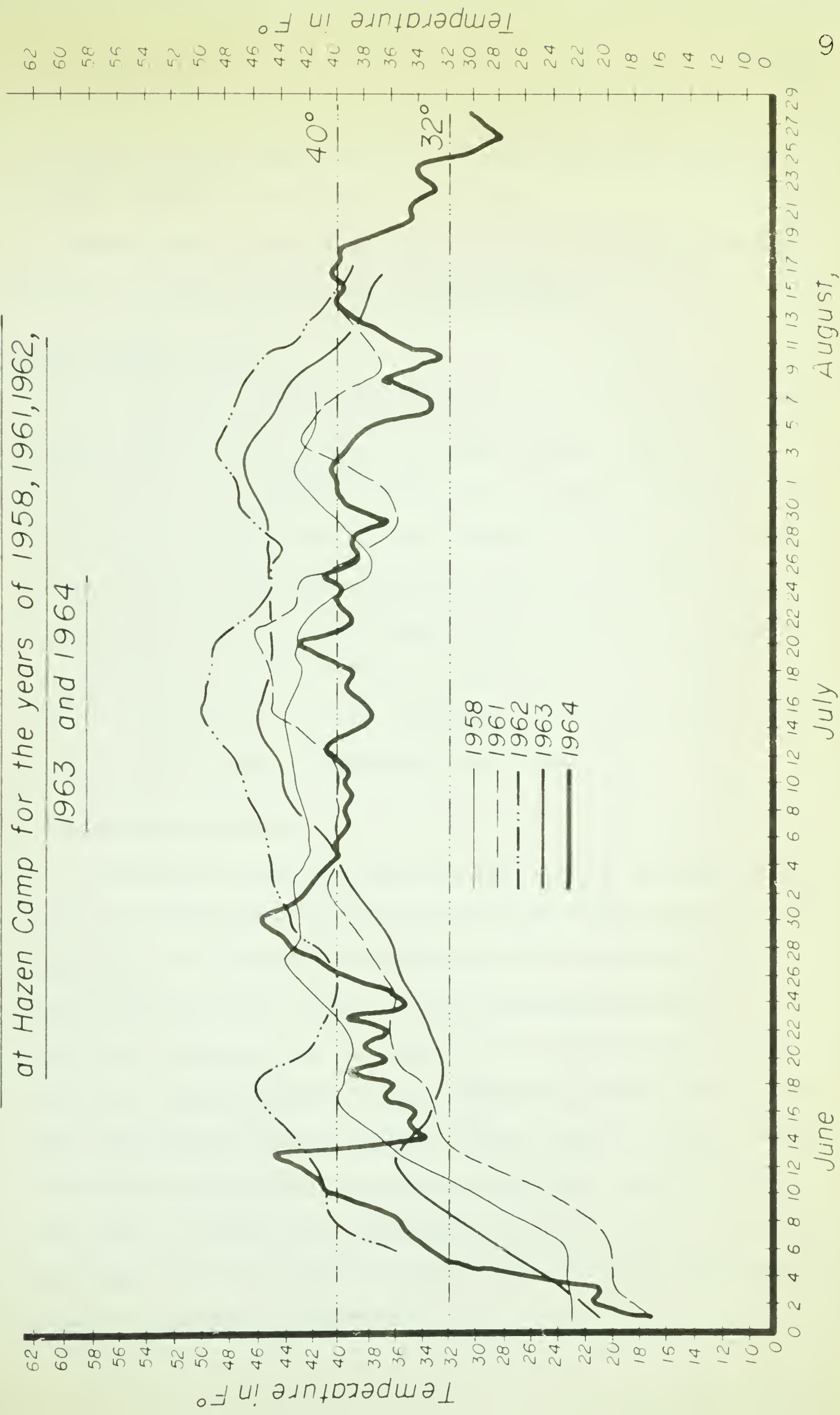


FIGURE: 2

of the air at one foot (30 cm) or less (composite data, Jackson, 1959, pp. 127-130, and Leech).

During the summer Lake Hazen enjoys cloudless periods for two to three weeks without interruption.

Night Shadow Areas

In 1963 and 1964 I observed that several species of the spiders were restricted to the night shadow areas. These areas are in the mountain shadow for a minimum of about four to six hours during each 24 hour period at the warmest part of the season, and longer earlier and later in the season. In temperate regions, the shadow period would be at night. The shadow area extends from the shoulders of Mt. McGill to the line marked off as map coordinates K3 to K6, J7 to J9 to B9 and all the area encompassed (see figure 1).

Materials and Methods

Previous to 1963, a possible ten species of spiders were known from the Hazen Camp area from fewer than seventy-five specimens. The program "Studies on Arctic Insects" was instigated by D. R. Oliver of the Entomology Research Institute, Ottawa, and has dealt so far with insects from Isachsen, Ellef Ringnes Island, (McAlpine, 1964), and Hazen Camp, Ellesmere Island, (Downes, 1964; Oliver, et al., 1964). I was given permission to study the spiders from the Hazen Camp area. Studies were begun at the end of June, 1963, and continued until the end of August, 1964, with an interruption during the winter of 1963-1964.

Materials

The identification, structure, and distribution of 20,534 spiders comprising 13 species collected during two summers within the study area were examined. All were collected in the Hazen Camp area. Identified also were 751 spiders from Melville Island (collected by Larry Law), 36 spiders from Tanquary Fjord, Ellesmere Island (collected by Guy Brassard), 18 spiders from Bathurst and Cornwallis Islands (collected by Leonard Hills), and 54 spiders from Thule, Greenland (collected by me).

About 522 individuals of two species of Lycosidae were studied in an attempt to determine the length of life cycle.

The field equipment included 50 aluminum cake pans, 23x23x6.5 cm, used in 1963 and 37 pans again used in 1964. Each pan contained a solution two centimetres deep with the following fluid proportions: 600 ml water, 400 ml ethylene glycol, 5 ml formalin, and one to two ml of any liquid detergent.

Identifications in the field laboratory were made with the aid of a Wild M5 binocular dissecting microscope with a maximum power of 50 diameters, and a lamp. Identifications and analyses in the laboratory were made with a Leitz binocular dissecting microscope with a maximum power of 150 diameters. Light was supplied by a 100 watt zircon arc lamp ("Mikrark Illuminator", made by the Boone Instrument Corporation or New York). A Leitz eyepiece grid 10 mm

square divided into 0.5 mm squares and a 10 mm eyepiece micrometre scale with 100 divisions were used in conjunction with millimetre graph paper in preparing the drawings.

The meteorological equipment of Hazen Camp was set up and used throughout the study periods. Equipment included corrected maximum and minimum thermometers, a Feuss corrected millibar barometer, a hygrothermograph, and an anemometer.

A pair of each species will be sent to the following institutions or persons: American Museum of Natural History, New York; Zoologisk Museum, Kystalgade, Copenhagen; Zoological Institute, Uppsala University, Uppsala; Laboratoire de Zoologie, University of Toulouse, Toulouse, France; Dr. Hermann Wiehle, Dessau, Germany; Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard University; Department of Entomology, University of Alberta, Edmonton. The remaining specimens will be deposited in the Canadian National Collection, Ottawa.

Ten males and 10 females of Tarentula exasperans Pickard-Cambridge, 1877, will be sent to the Zoologisk Museum, Copenhagen.

Methods

The study area was examined for the principal ecological zones (based on Savile's noted of 1962). In 1963, a total of 50 traps was placed at carefully selected sites and in 1964, a total of 37 traps was used, eight of which were repeats of 1963 sites. The repeat sites were in

the habitat areas of some of the less-frequently collected species. The new traps of 1964 were in areas not examined in 1963.

The traps were examined once every four days. This interval was selected in 1963 in order to fit into a previously-established work pattern, and retained in 1964 for purposes of continuity. Each trap was emptied of spiders and insects and the fluid replaced or added to.

The traps were set so that the lip of the pan was flush with the ground level. There was usually very little sand drift except in some sites because the winds were of low velocity.

There were several problems encountered when using the pitfall traps. Traps placed in low regions near streams were often flooded by water and the specimens lost. The biggest problem was caused by foxes and wolves which would urinate and defecate into the traps, then scratch sand and any loose vegetation into them. I have interpreted this to mean that they do not like the pans or their contents. Oliver (pers. comm.) and B. Hocking (pers. comm.), after observing similar behaviour in these animals, have interpreted these actions in the same way. There did not seem to be any way to solve this problem!

Spiders from each trap were preserved and kept in separate vials by trap and by day. Later examination of the

material preserved in this manner permitted me to analyze each species for its local distribution and seasonal abundance. The results are recorded by species on graphs in the text. My analysis of a species habitat is based on where the immatures and females of a species were collected, as males wander. Overwintering sites were used as further evidence of the usual habitat of a species.

Individual spiders were identified to species in the field laboratory.

In the laboratory, all specimens were re-examined. Identifications were rechecked, and number of individuals per sex per day per trap were recorded. With the exception of four species, the immature stages were not identified as identification of immature stages can never be positive.

Individuals with anomalies in epigyna and pedipalp organs were examined for mermithid (Nematomorpha) or other parasites.

Geographical variation of the spider species was not studied as not enough specimens have been collected or examined from other localities.

All measurements and drawings were made from the microscope. The pertinent sexual parts of large spiders were drawn at 54 diameters, and for the smaller species, at 150 diameters. All drawings were made with the aid of the 100 watt zircon arc lamp. Measurements of all parts were recorded with each drawing.

Measurements of carapaces were made from directly above the spider. Length is the distance from the base line between the posterior median eyes posteriorly along the midline to the incurve of the hind edge of the carapace. Carapace width was measured at its widest part. The opisthosoma was measured from the dorsal aspect. Total length of the spider was measured from the dorsal aspect from the base line between the posterior median eyes to the end of the opisthosoma.

Measurements of legs and leg parts were always made on the actual dorsal side of the leg. Measurements were made from the proximal to the distal part of a leg segment and did not include the membranes at the joints.

Synopsis of the Species

Dictynidae

Dictyna borealis Pickard-Cambridge, 1877.....23

Lycosidae

Pardosa glacialis (Thorell, 1872).....28

Tarentula exasperans Pickard-Cambridge, 1877...45

Linyphiidae

Collinsia spitsbergensis (Thorell, 1871).....53

Collinsia thulensis (Jackson, 1934).....56

Cornicularia karpinskii (Pickard-Cambridge, 1873). 60

Erigone psychrophila Thorell, 1871.....66

Hilaira vexatrix (Pickard-Cambridge, 1877).....70

Meioneta nigripes (Simon, 1884).....75

Minyriolus pampia Chamberlin, 1948.....82

Savignya barbata (Koch, 1879).....87

Typhochraestus latithorax (Strand, 1905).....92

Thomisidae

Xysticus deichmanni Soerensen, 1898.....98

Key to the Spider Species at Hazen Camp

- 1 (a) Cribellum and calamistrum present; usually in web in
Dryas integrifolia.....Dictynidae.
Dictyna borealis Pickard-Cambridge, Figs. 38, 39.
- (b) Cribellum and calamistrum lacking.....2
- 2 (a) Posterior median eyes large and facing forward,
anterior row of four small eyes, all facing forward,
.....Lycosidae.....3
- (b) Not as in 2 (a).....4
- 3 (a) Mostly gray, found only in dry places near Dryas
integrifolia, rather rare.....
Tarentula exasperans Pickard-Cambridge, Figs. 35, 36, 37.
- (b) Mostly brown, found everywhere, very common.....
Pardosa glacialis (Thorell), Figs. 32, 33, 34.
- 4 (a) Legs laterigrade; only two tarsal claws; posterior
median eyes atop the carapace and much smaller than
the laterals; spider any colour from white and brown
to black and brown; body robust, somewhat flattened;
does not spin webbing.....Thomisidae.
Xysticus deichmanni Soerensen, Figs. 40, 41.
- (b) Legs not laterigrade; spiders small, no more than
about 3.0 mm long; no body colour patterns, generally
brown to black; often in webs in cracks in the ground;
three tarsal claws, though the centre one may be small
and hard to see.....Linyphiidae....5

- 5 (a) Tibia IV with two spines dorsally, or if with one spine only, then with one short spine on Metatarsus I and II.....6
- (b) Tibia IV with one dorsal basal spine, and all metatarsi spineless.....7
- 6 (a) Metatarsus IV with a trichobothriumHilaira vexatrix (Pickard-Cambridge), Figs. 45, 46.
- (b) Metatarsus IV lacking a trichobothrium.....Meioneta nigripes (Simon), Figs. 62, 63, 64.
- 7 (a) Males, tarsus of pedipalpus enlarged and bearing many sclerotized parts.....8
- (b) Female, tarsus of pedipalpus not enlarged, epigynum present.....14
- 8 (a) Head not raised into a horn or low or distinct lobe, but smoothly rounded.....9
- (b) Head raised into a horn or low or distinct lobe..10
- 9 (a) Spine on Tibia IV at 0.31.....Collinsia spitsbergensis (Thorell), Fig. 69.
- (b) Spine on Tibia IV at 0.38 or 0.39.....Collinsia thulensis (Jackson), Fig. 66.
- 10 (a) Margin of carapace spiny, head raised into a low lobe, femur of pedipalp spiny ventrally.....Erigone psychrophila (Thorell), Fig. 42.
- (b) Not as in 10 (a).....11

- 11 (a) Head raised into a distinct horn pointing forward and upward from the ocular area.....Cornicularia karpinskii (Pickard-Cambridge), Figs. 52, 53.
- (b) Not as in 11 (a).....12
- 12 (a) Head raised into a shallow lobe or bulge behind the eyes; a thin bridge to the ocular region behind the posterior median eyes; a hole behind the posterior median eyes; cephalic pits rounded; Trichobothrium IV lacking.....Typhochraestus latithorax (Strand), Figs. 54, 55, 56, 57.
- (b) Not as in 12 (a).....13
- 13 (a) Head raised into a shallow lobe; cephalic pits lacking; Trichobothrium IV at 0.78.....Minyriolus pampia Chamberlin, Figs. 48, 49, 50.
- (b) Head raised to a high lobe; cephalic pits groove-like and horizontal; Trichobothrium IV lacking....Savignya barbata (Koch), Figs. 58, 59, 60.
- 14 (a) Metatarsus IV with a trichobothrium.....15
- (b) Metatarsus IV lacking a trichobothrium.....16
- 15 (a) Trichobothrium IV at 0.50, Tibia IV spine at 0.16 to 0.17.....Cornicularia karpinskii (Pickard-Cambridge), Fig. 51.
- (b) Trichobothrium IV at 0.74 to 0.75, Tibia IV spine at 0.10.....Minyriolus pampia Chamberlin, Figs. 47, 48, 49.

- 16 (a) Tibiae I-II each with two spines, Tibiae III-IV with one spine, Trichobothrium I at 0.52.....Savignya barbata (Koch), Fig. 61.
- (b) Tibiae I-III each with two spines, Tibia IV with one spine.....17
- 17 (a) Spine of Tibia IV at 0.25 to 0.26, Trichobothrium I at 0.43.....Erigone psychrophila Thorell, Figs. 43, 44.
- (b) Not as in 17 (a).....18
- 18 (a) Spine of Tibia IV at 0.29, Trichobothrium I at 0.63Typhochraestus latithorax (Strand), Fig. 57.
- (b) Not as in 18 (a).....19
- 19 (a) Spine of Tibia IV at 0.41, Trichobothrium I at 0.64Collinsia spitsbergensis (Pickard-Cambridge), Fig. 65.
- (b) Spine of Tibia IV at 0.33, Trichobothrium I at 0.58Collinsia thulensis (Jackson), Figs. 67, 68.

Terms used in the Key

cribellum: a spinning organ placed as a transverse plate just in front of the spinnerets. The cribellum and calamistrum are both present together or both lacking. That is, if a calamistrum is found, then the cribellum is also present.

calamistrum: one or two rowed series of curved spines on the dorsal surface or dorso-retro-lateral edge of Metatarsus IV.

laterigrade: the way the legs are turned, so that the morphologically dorsal surface is posterior. Typical in crab spiders.

trichobothrium: a very fine hair arising from a hemispherical socket and extending out at right angles from the surface of the leg. In the key, it is always referred to on the Metatarsus. Its position is measured by the ratio:

Distance from proximal joint of Metatarsus to Trichobothrium

Total length of the Metatarsus

and is expressed by a decimal fraction.

epigynum: a sclerite associated with the reproductive openings of the female and lying on the mid-ventral line.

spines: spines on the tibia, either one or two. If only one, then its position is measured by the ratio:

Distance from the proximal joint of tibia to spine

Total length of the tibia

and is expressed as a decimal fraction.

Dictynidae

Dictyna borealis Pickard-Cambridge, 1877

(Figures 38, 39)

Dictyna borealis Pickard-Cambridge, 1877-273.Dictyna borealis: Bonnet, 1956-1431, Tome II, vol. 2.Dictyna borealis: Chamberlin and Gertsch, 1958-136 (in part).Dictyna borealis: Holm, 1958b-534.Dictyna borealis: Braendegaard, 1960-7 (in part).Dictyna species: Turnbull, 1963-176.

Notes on Taxonomy

Chamberlin and Gertsch (1958-137) place a few specimens collected by H.W. Levi in the high mountains of Colorado in this species, but the tips of the emboli of those specimens differ in shape from the emboli of specimens collected at Lake Hazen. The latter are definitely members of the species borealis. Further, the Colorado specimens are considerably larger than any of the Lake Hazen specimens. Gertsch (pers. comm., 1965) has confirmed my opinion that the Colorado specimens are not borealis Pickard-Cambridge, even though they are similar and probably are related to the species.

Natural History

Habitat

This species is a member of the arid arctic faunal element (Braendegaard, 1946) and is heliophilic. Specimens are most frequently found on dry, south-facing slopes exposed to the sun, with a vegetation consisting

mainly of Dryas integrifolia, but often of Cassiope tetragona. It prefers hummocked, almost wind-free areas. It overwinters in the vegetation on the surface.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

Figure 3 shows the main period of activity of the males of this species. The females are rarely wanderers. The main activity period of the males is directly correlated with the courtship and mating periods of the species. The adults are not known to overwinter.

Courtship

Courtship was not observed in this species, but it cannot be long nor involved, as virgin males and females introduced to one another were found mating within a 45 minute lapse of observation. Previous to mating, the males assumed small territories which they defended against all other males, but which females seemed almost coaxed to enter. Defending a territory consisted of actively fighting all male intruders.

Mating

Four pairs of spiders were observed mating and both of the male pedipalpi were inserted into the female at the same time. The male was positioned ventral to the female, with the carapace of the male almost touching the prosomatic sternum of the female. There did not seem to be any specified angle as two pairs were lying on their side, the third pair positioned with the female upside down, and the fourth pair with the female rightside up. Mating continued for about

GRAPH SHOWING FREQUENCY
DISTRIBUTION OF MALES AND FEMALES
of *Dictyna borealis*
DURING THE SUMMER OF 1964

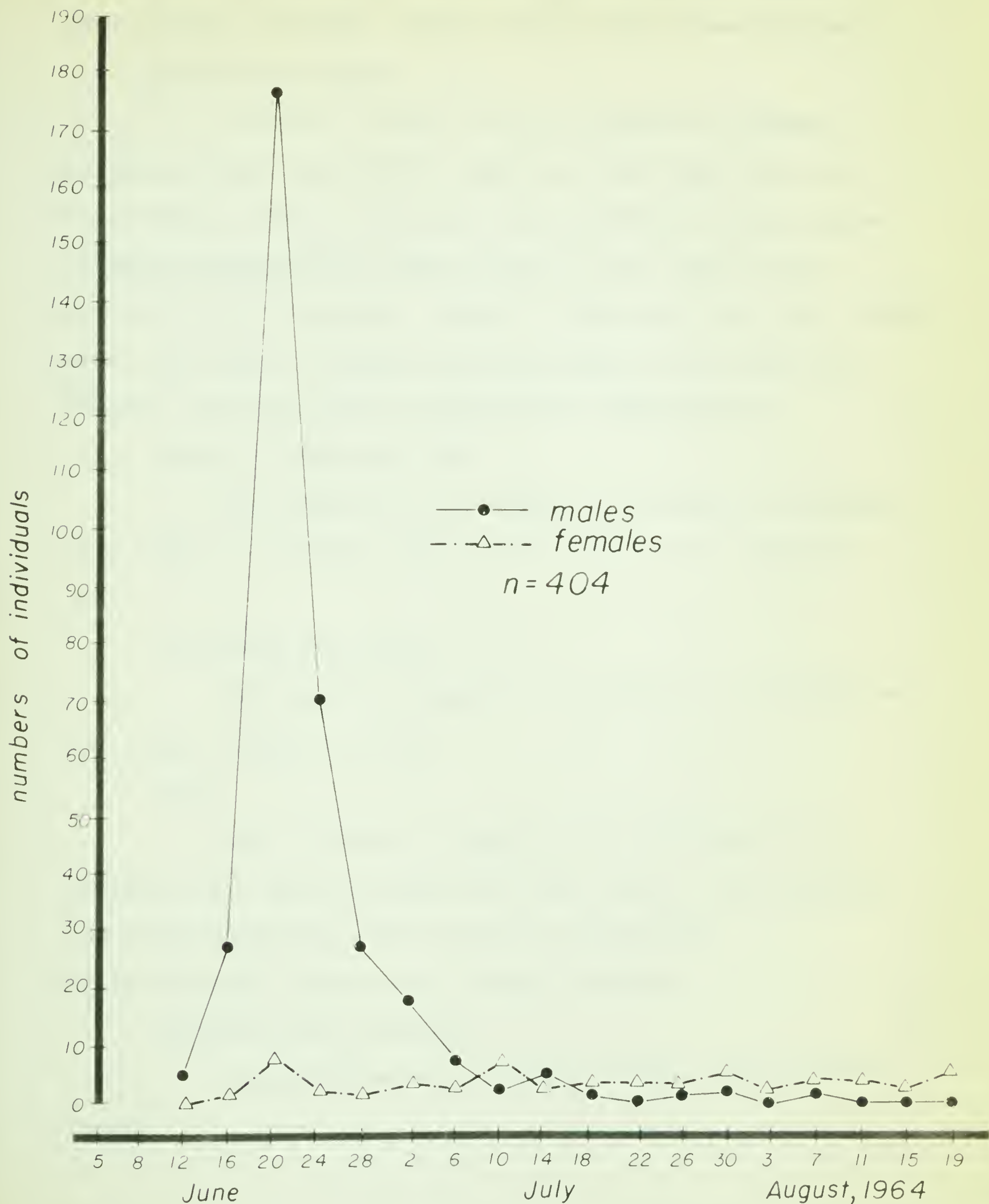


Fig. 3.

30 minutes, then each of the four pairs began separating. They did not recouple. Males did not mate more than once.

Egg-laying Sites

In 1963, I observed that females of Dictyna borealis almost invariably deposited their egg sacs and built their webs on the south- and southwest-facing sides of Dryas integrifolia hummocks and in the vegetation, but never on the ground. About 30 egg sacs were seen. Laboratory specimens in 1964 also laid eggs in the vegetation. Females remained near the eggs until they hatched.

Number of Eggs per Sac

Ten egg sacs were examined and found to contain from eight to thirteen eggs, with a mean of 8.7 eggs per sac.

Overwintering Stages

This species appears to be able to overwinter at any stage except the adult.

Food

When offered a choice of over 30 species of Diptera, this species preferred small ones. Chironomidae and Ceratopogonidae were the main preferences. Cyclorrhaphous Diptera were always refused.

Parasites and Predators

No parasites or predators of this species were found.

Material Examined

About 625 adults of this species were examined, and all were from Hazen Camp area.

Distribution

Greenland (Peary Land; E. Greenland, $68-77^{\circ}\text{N}$; W. Greenland, $60-79^{\circ}\text{N}$). Ellesmere Island (Hazen Camp area). Bernard Harbour, ($68^{\circ}48'\text{N}$, $114^{\circ}42'\text{W}$), Mackenzie District, N.W.T.

This species appears to have a relict distribution, though as it is able to balloon, it should be found in more of the Nearctic Region.

Figure 4 is a map of the distribution of this species.

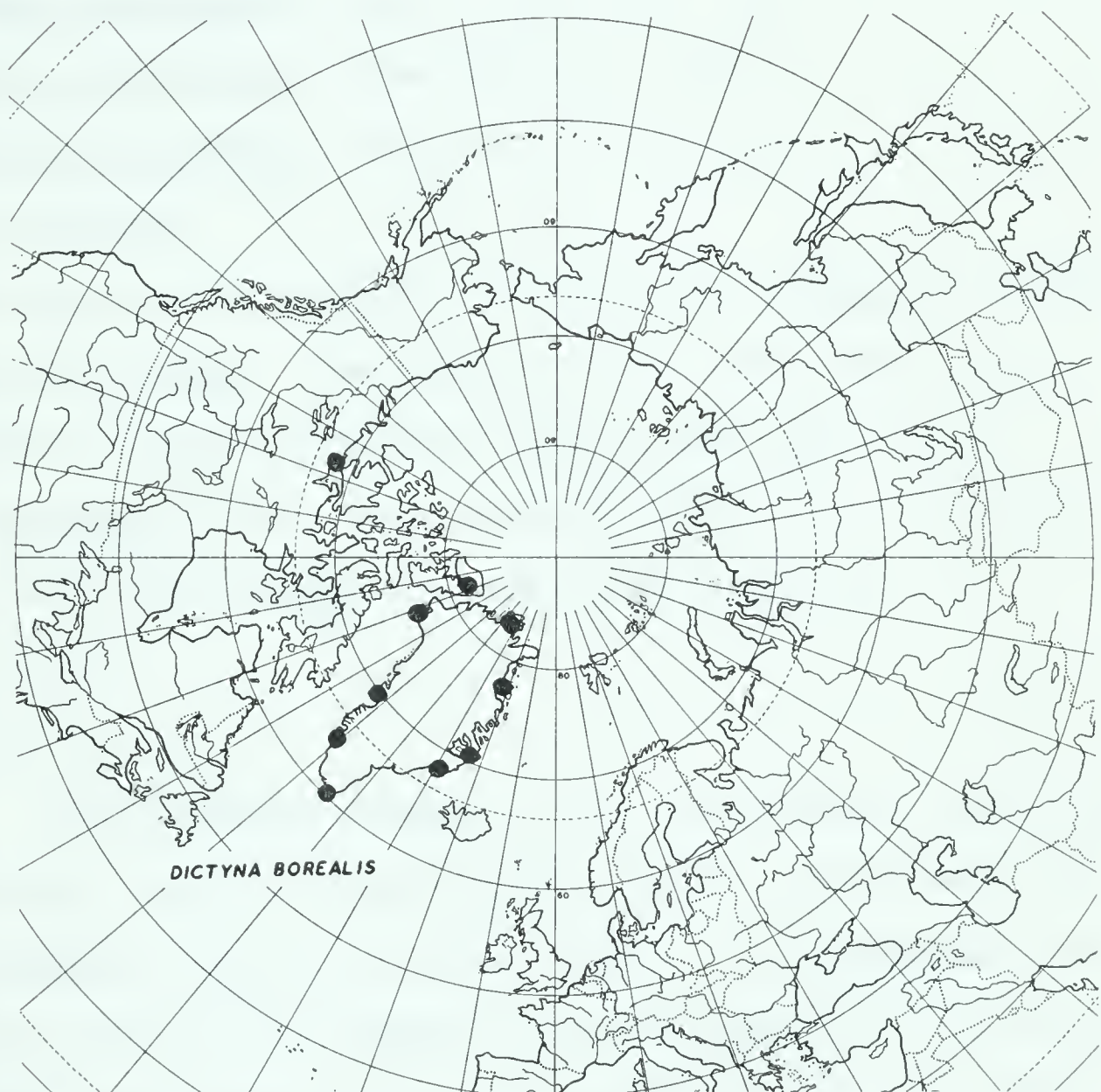


Figure 4. Distribution map of *Dictyna borealis*

Lycosidae

Pardosa glacialis (Thorell, 1872)

(Figures 32, 33, 34)

Lycosa glacialis Thorell, 1872-159.Pardosa glacialis: Bonnet, 1958-3371, Tome II, vol. 4.Lycosa glacialis: Holm, 1958b-529, 533.Lycosa glacialis: Braendegaard, 1960-8.Pardosa glacialis: Turnbull, 1963-176.

Notes on Taxonomy

This species is a member of the genus Pardosa, and not of the genus Lycosa. The characters of both genera are summarized in Kaston (1948-321, 331). The egg sacs of Pardosa glacialis are a pale green-blue and are lenticular. Those of all known Lycosa are white and spherical.

Natural History

Habitat

This species belongs to the euryoequous (euryecious) arctic faunal element (Braendegaard, 1946). Specimens are found everywhere except in windy places. P. glacialis overwinters in the soil in cracks and under stones on the surface. It has not been found in the overwintering sites at depths greater than 2.5 cm. It does not burrow. Individuals of this species drown easily, hence they will not be found overwintering alive in areas that are inundated or soaked by spring melting of snow and ice. Apparent migrations or mass movements of individuals in the spring are really the successful overwintering individuals radiating from winter quarters.

GRAPH SHOWING FREQUENCY
DISTRIBUTION OF MALES AND FEMALES
OF *Pardosa glacialis*
DURING THE SUMMER OF 1964

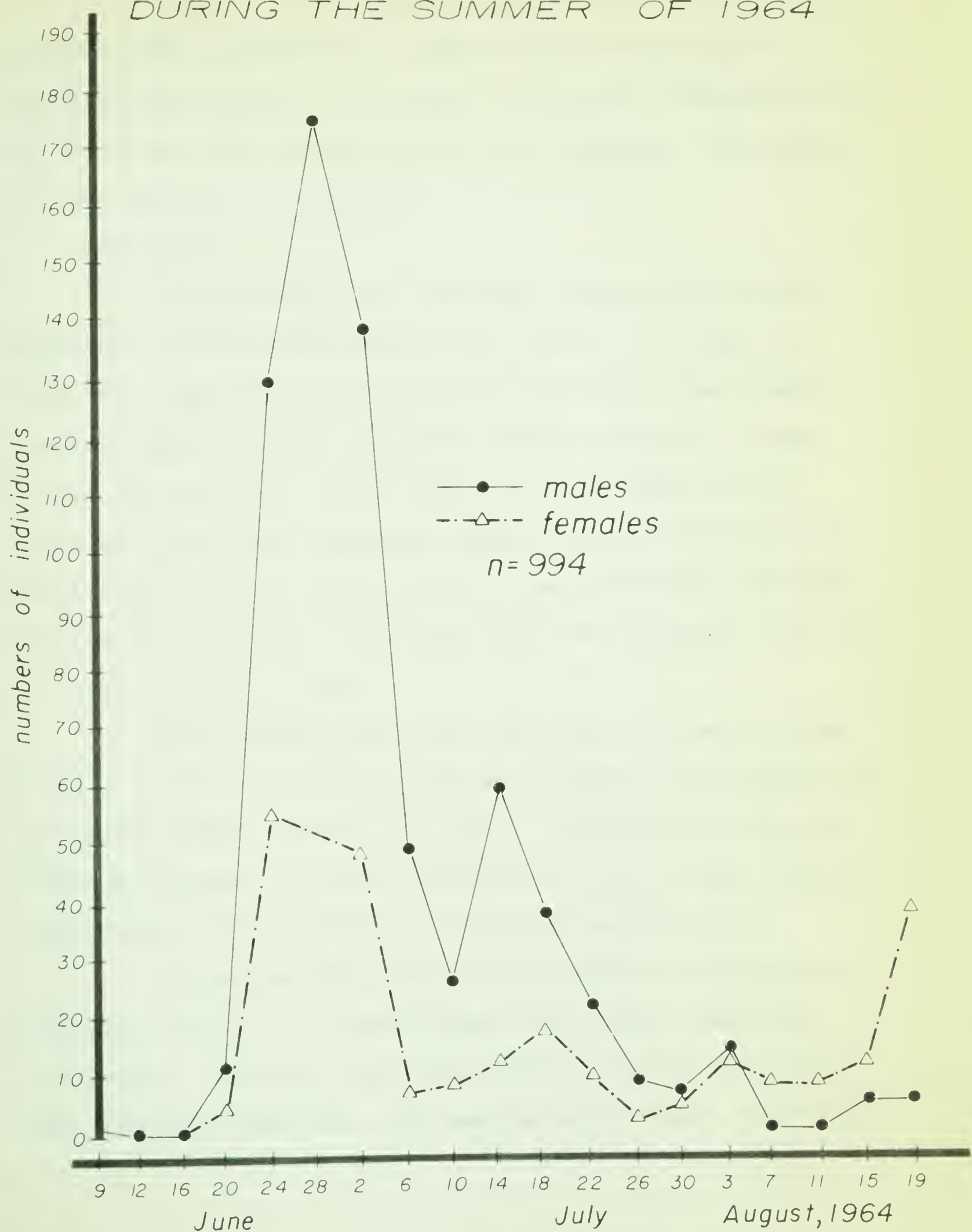


Fig. 5.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

Figure 5 shows the main period of activity of the males of this species to be between June 29 and July 6. The activity period of the males is directly correlated with the courtship and mating period of the species. The adults are not known to overwinter.

Courtship

The courtship and courtship preliminaries were observed from the beginning of the season. On June 29, 1964, the eighth day after moulting from the penultimate instar, captured adult males and females suddenly became active in courting. It was noted that the males would court under natural conditions only if heat and light were sufficient. In the laboratory, it was noted that courting started or stopped if a 100 watt bulb were brought to 25 cm or taken away to 75 cms.

When courting was first observed, the males began holding a small territory, and would defend this against all intruders except females. In all, 63 males were observed courting females, 46 in the laboratory and 17 under natural conditions. No variation in courtship was observed.

The males were often seen rubbing the substrate with the venter of the opisthosoma, but sperm webs were never seen. Evidently some species of lycosids spin sperm webs (Gertsch, 1949-73), and some do not (Savory, 1928-224).

Courtship is summarized as follows: on June 29, 1964, a male was observed in the beginnings of courtship. The palpi, bent downward at the patellae, were moved in a circular motion which, when viewed from above, appeared clockwise in the right palpus, and anticlockwise in the left. Simultaneously, the first pair of legs were lifted and extended horizontally forward, then gradually relaxed while extended. When the tarsi of the first legs touched the ground, the palpi stopped churning. The palpi started rechurning when the legs, brought back toward the carapace and raised, started extending forward.

Associated with these waving motions was a characteristic weaving of the body. First, the waving motions were started in a position which squarely faced the female, who was usually some 10 cm distant. The male then turned 30° to the left and vigorously made the waving motions, turned toward the female and repeated the waving, then turned 30° to the right and again repeated the waving motions, then centre, then left.....until within two cm of the female, at which point the weaving was cut to two positions, each about 20° from centre. The right-left weave and associated waving motions were continued vigorously until either the female chased the male away, or until their legs touched, at which point the female suddenly assumed a defense position with fangs spread open and the first two pairs of legs raised up and forward.

In this position, the female charged forward for about one cm, and the male fled for about 15 cm, then turned and again started the same advance procedures. Almost invariably, the males approached the females from the front.

On June 30, 1964, most of the males were dead. Mating had presumably taken place in the late afternoon of the previous day.

Previous authors have argued whether the male's courtship reaction was precipitated by sight, smell, contact, or a combination of all three. It is my opinion that courtship by individuals of P. glacialis was initiated by chemo and contact stimuli rather than by sight or touching of the ground over which the females had passed. The opinion is based on the following observations. Virgin males placed in cages that had previously had females did not become "excited", but virgin males placed in cages with females present became "excited" by leg contact with the females and began courting within 25 minutes. The initial reaction of the males after contact was to withdraw to a corner and start cleaning the whole body, legs, and palpi. The cleaning usually lasted about 20 minutes. The males then ventured out slowly, and at first fled at the approach of either a male or a female. Courting began shortly thereafter. Osterloh (1922) rightly concluded that the necessary stimulus for male spiders is different in different species. The condition of the male and female should be known when the observation was made.

For instance, had observations at Hazen Camp been made only on males that had previously touched females, the conclusions might have been that sight is the "triggering" mechanism.

Mating

Mating was never observed in P. glacialis, but one male which had repeatedly been shunned by all females, began courting a large male Chironomid, which was lying on its side almost dead. The male eventually mounted the fly in the usual Pardosa manner (Kaston, 1936-167). The male glacialis discovered the mistake and ate the fly.

Egg Laying and Egg-laying Site

Within 48 hours after mating, the females were ready to lay eggs. Four females were observed during the whole egg-laying process. Because there were no observable differences during the egg-laying, the general pattern is described as follows. The female located a sheltered flat place which lay pocket-like between and under several rocks. She then started making a thin flat sheet of webbing about 2.5 cms in diameter. In the centre of this the female made a small, much-thicker patch of webbing about 0.8 cm in diameter which was of a different silk material than the main sheet web. The centre patch was slightly green and opaque. These preparations took about 30 minutes.

The female then placed her genital region over the small centre patch and started laying eggs at the rate of one egg each 50-60 seconds until the usual 50-53 eggs were laid. Each female appeared to rest for about ten minutes, then made the covering for the sac. The silk

material for the upper and lower halves of the egg sac was the same. The upper half of the sac was attached to the lower half with such firmness that the lower half became somewhat bowl-shaped when only half the upper covering was made.

The female made the cover for the upper half by attaching a thick silk line to one side of the centre patch, then swung the opisthosoma up and over the eggs to the far side. As the silk lines were attached, the female rotated about the eggs making a complete cover. This operation lasted about 35 minutes. Again the female rested before cutting the egg sac free with either the chelicerae or endites. The female then turned and placed the spinnerets over the sac and attached them to it. The female then waited for over an hour, emerged from the hole with the sac attached, and the opisthosoma tilted up so that the sac did not drag on the ground.

I was not able to keep any of the caged females alive until the eggs emerged. Whenever a female died, I examined the egg sac to note the development of the eggs, but in no case were any young seen. On August 19, 1964, a female was captured with young that had just hatched from the egg sac. These were the only young seen of this species that hatched in 1964.

Number of Instars and Longevity

On the basis of analysis of mensural data obtained from 318 individuals of this species, it appears

that there are seven instars from the egg to the adult. Figure 6 illustrates this graphically. The first instar is spent inside the egg sac, and the second instar emerges from the egg sac and crawls onto the opisthosoma of the mother. If it is assumed that on the average each instar lasts one year, then the length of the life cycle of this species is about six years.

Solar Escape Orientation of Pardosa glacialis

Three groups of specimens were used for the experiment, one group encountered in the field and left alone except for the period of encounter, and two groups that were captured. One of the captured groups was kept outside where the sun could be seen on clear days. This group was maintained in order to assure having a control group to contrast with the group kept in the laboratory. The second captured group was maintained in the laboratory with a 100 watt bulb shining from the geographic east about 25 cm from the cage. The purpose of maintaining this group was to see if the solar orientation could be interrupted or disturbed, and that this occurred is apparent from the results summarized in figures 7, 8 and 9. The longer the specimens were kept in the laboratory, the greater became their confusion when released. Directions were often so unsure that a spider would turn almost 360° in a five cm circle before slowly going in a direction, and then it was as often towards as away from the sun rather than at right angles to it as seen by the chart of the

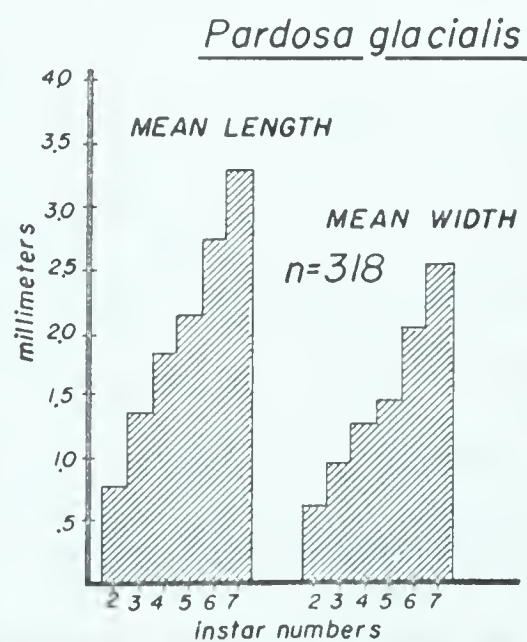
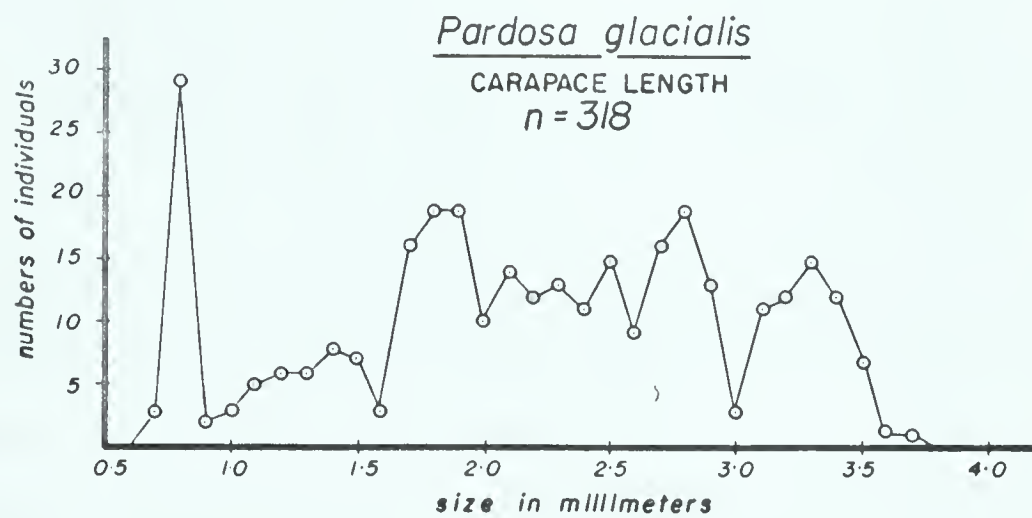
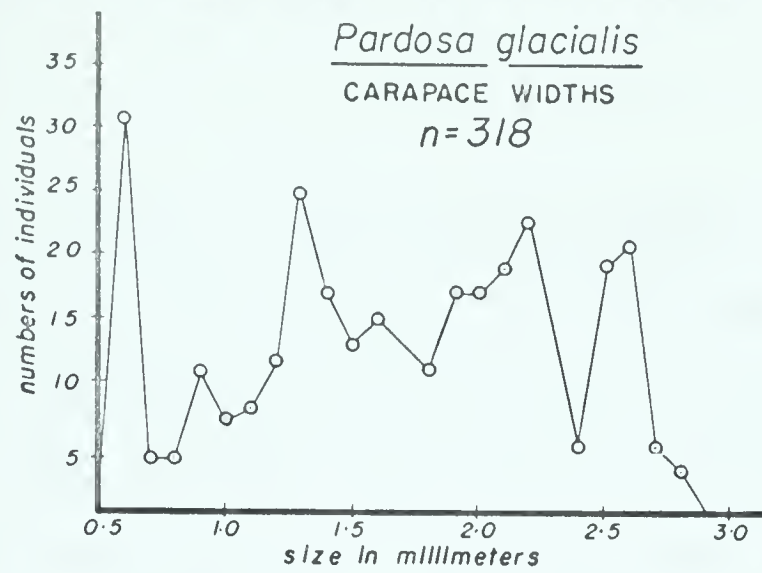


FIG. 6.

Frequency distribution of carapace lengths and widths of *Pardosa glacialis*

specimens kept outside or encountered in the field. Each specimen used in the laboratory experiment was kept inside for a minimum of nine days before being used in the experiment. In no case was the same spider tested more than once in a three hour period, as it was found that individuals became tired and gave different initial results at each escape.

Experiments were begun on July 2, 1964. Only adults or subadults were used as the younger spiders showed preference for well-protected, vegetated areas and their escape reactions were either to remain still or else hide in the vegetation. Parasitized adults and subadults were also omitted from the experiment when it was found that their escape reactions were considerably altered from those of the normal adult or subadult. These spiders show little or no escape reaction. In fact some refused to move unless prodded with a stick.

The results of the Lake Hazen experiments are as follows: Pardosa glacialis encountered in the field or kept under somewhat natural conditions attempted to escape at approximately 90° right or left to the sun's position. The group kept in the laboratory showed almost complete disorientation of escape direction in time (figs. 7,8). Individuals encountered in the field and placed in the shade before being startled, escaped directly away from me, but upon entering the sunlight, turned and ran at 90° to it.

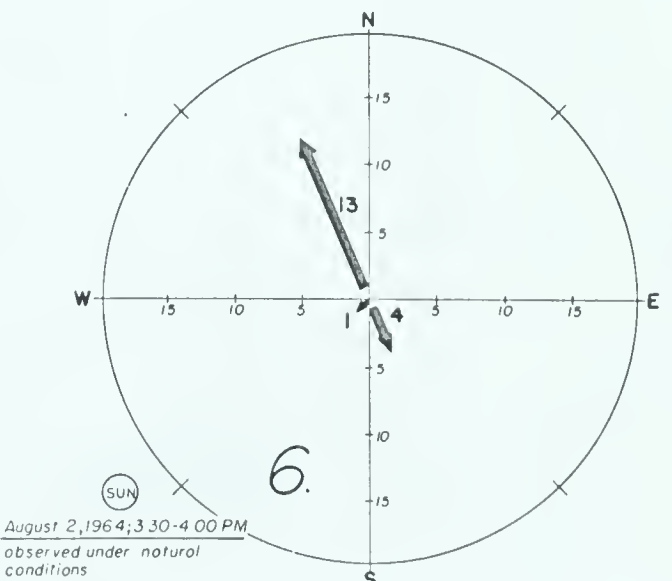
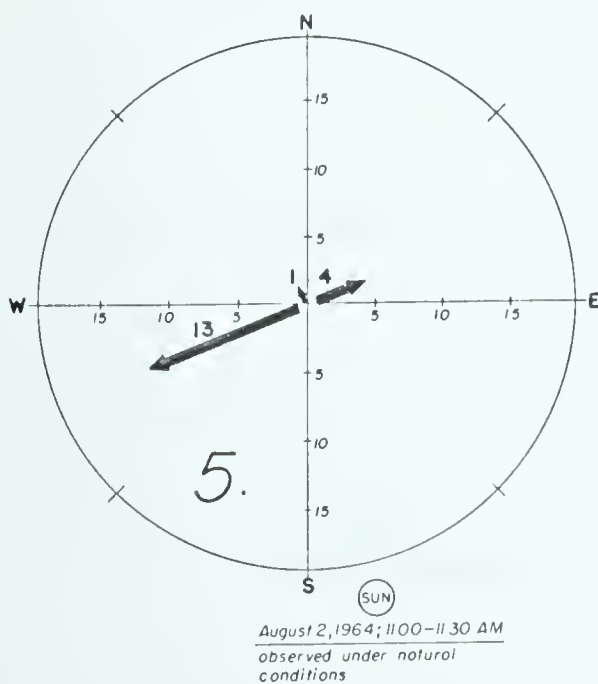
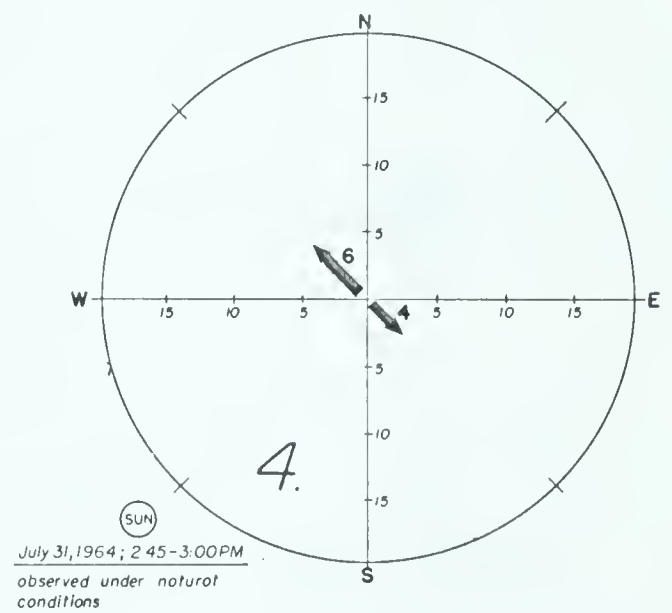
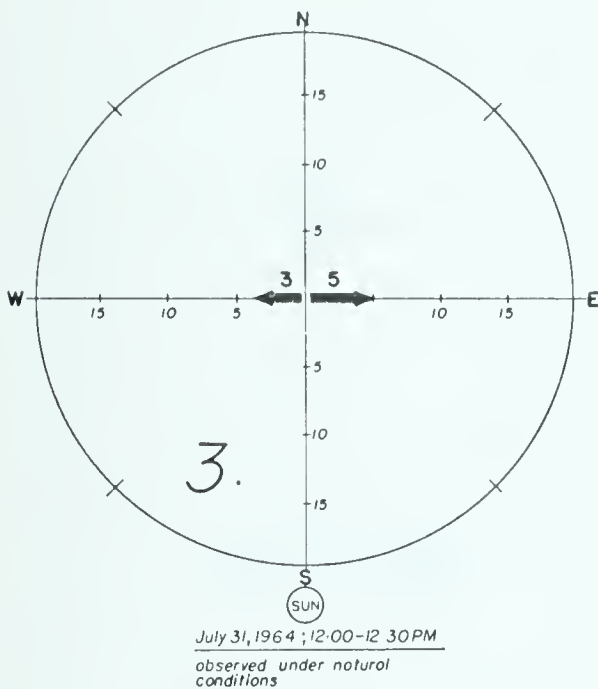
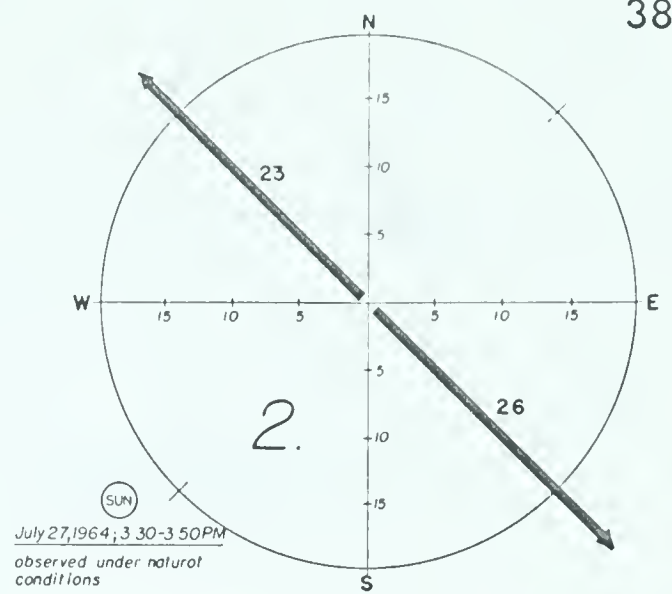
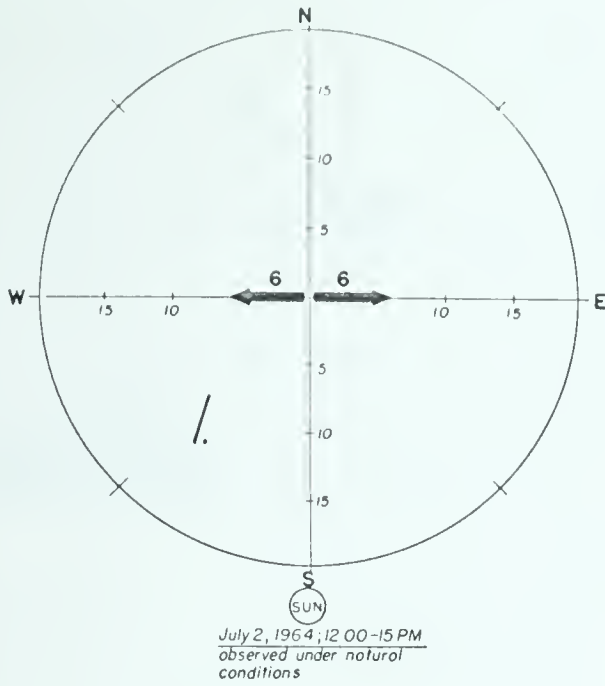


FIG. 7.

Escape directions of *Pardosa glacialis*
encountered under field conditions

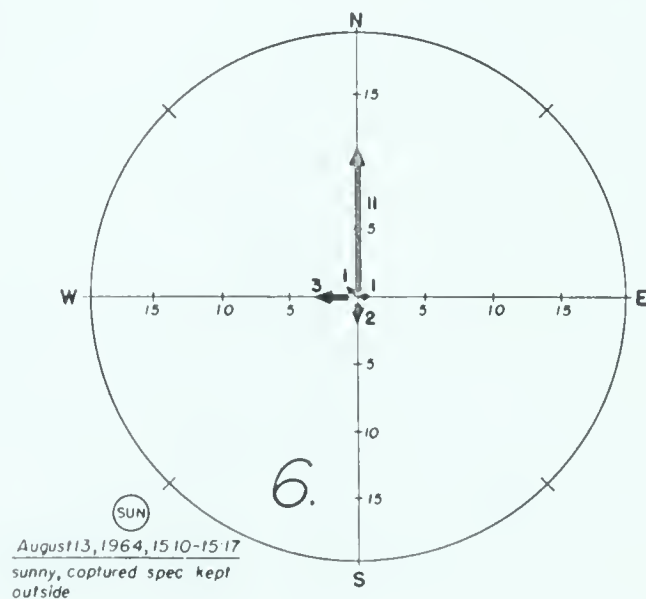
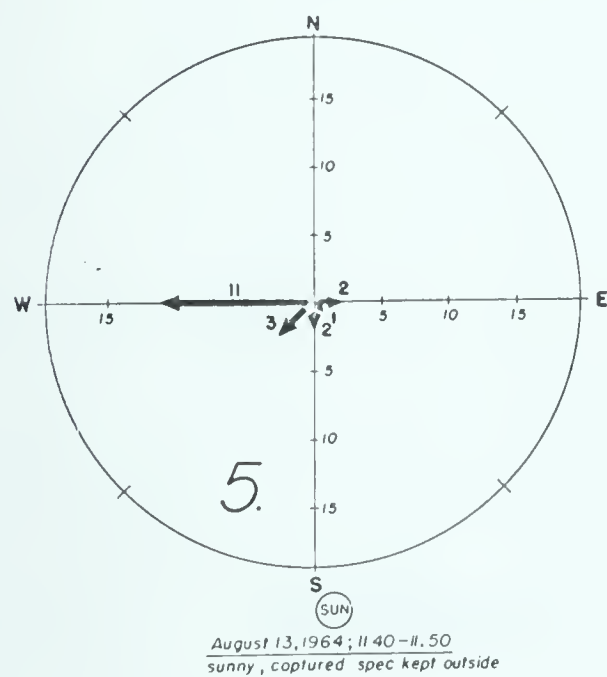
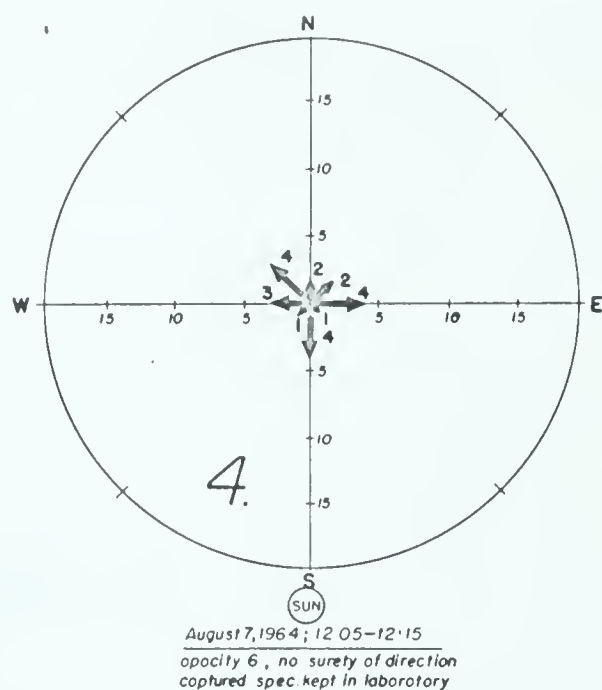
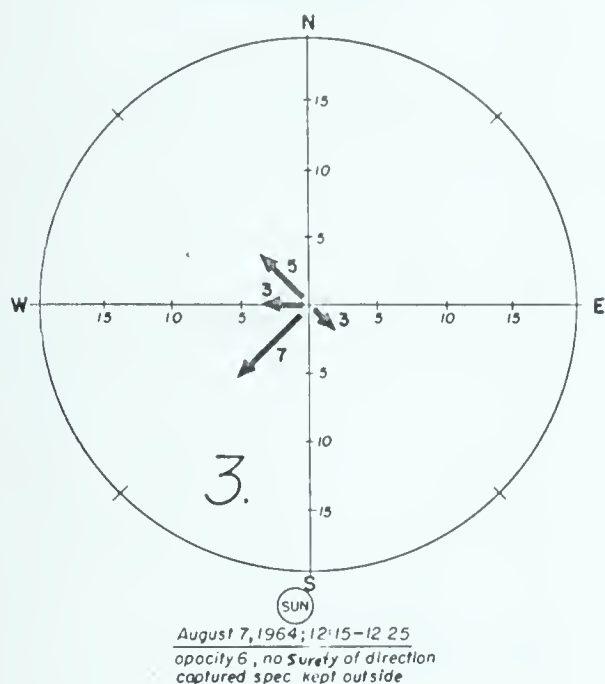
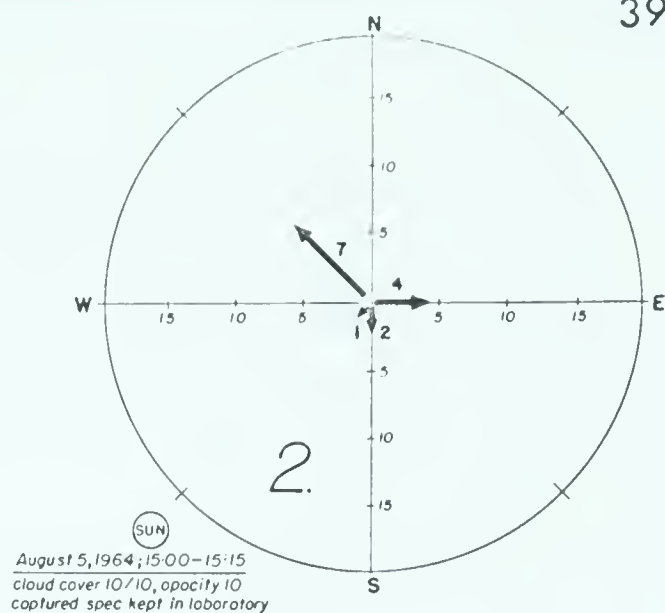
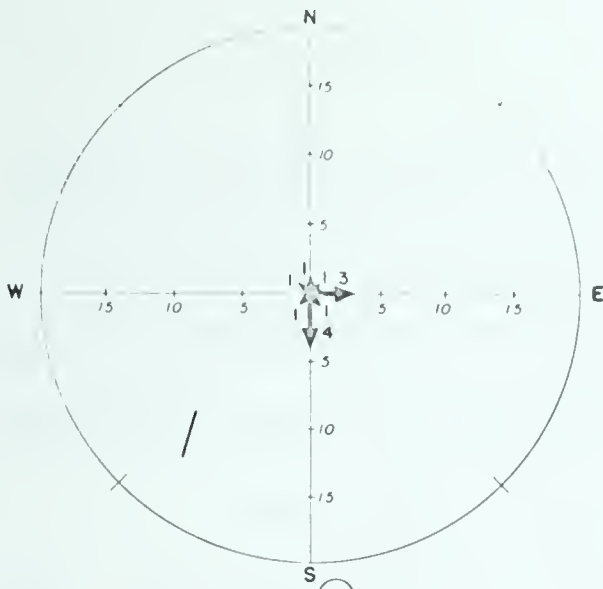


FIG. 8.

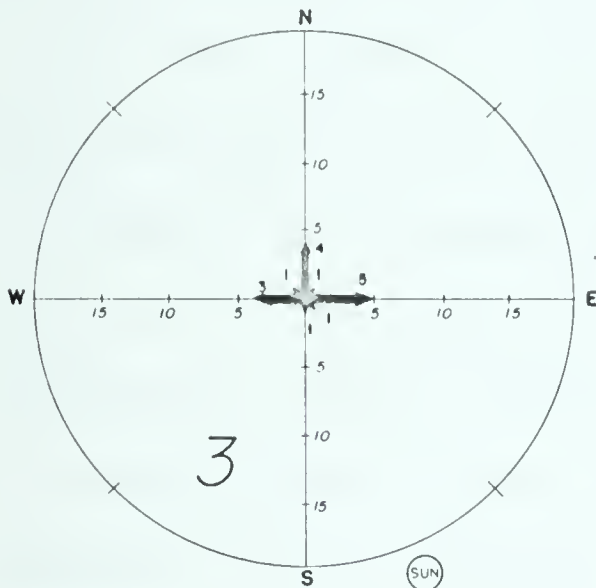
Escape directions of captured specimens of *Pardosa glacialis* kept outside in sunlight and captured specimens kept in laboratory and exposed to a 100 watt lamp shining from the east at all times



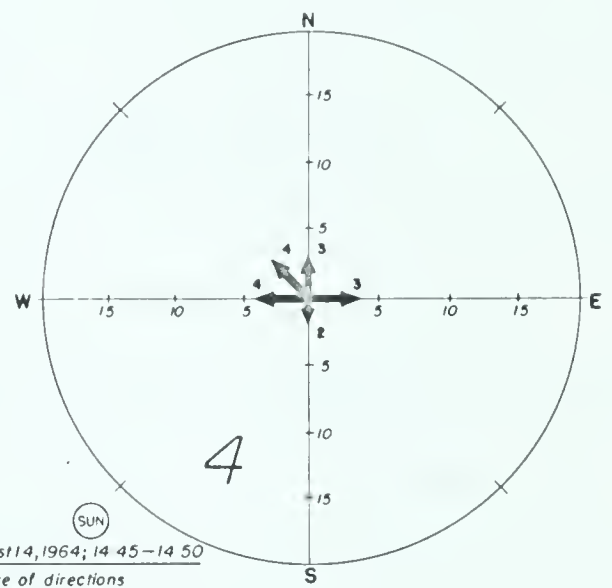
August 13, 1964; 11 30-11 35 AM
no surety of direction
captured spec. kept in laboratory



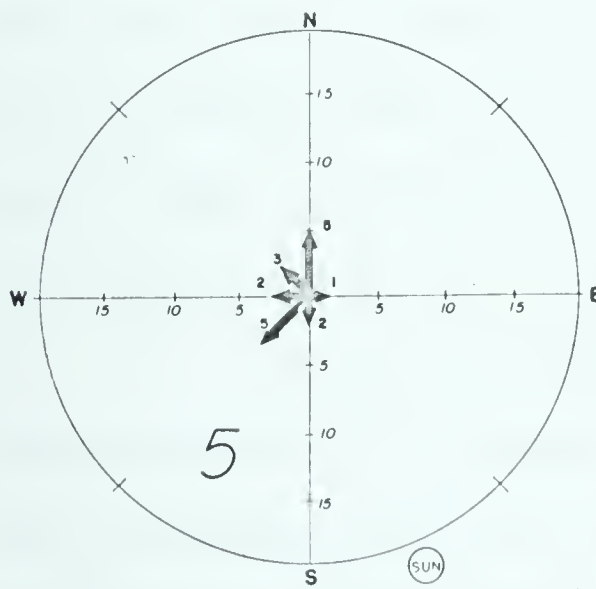
August 13, 1964; 15 00-15 07
no surety of direction
captured spec kept in laboratory



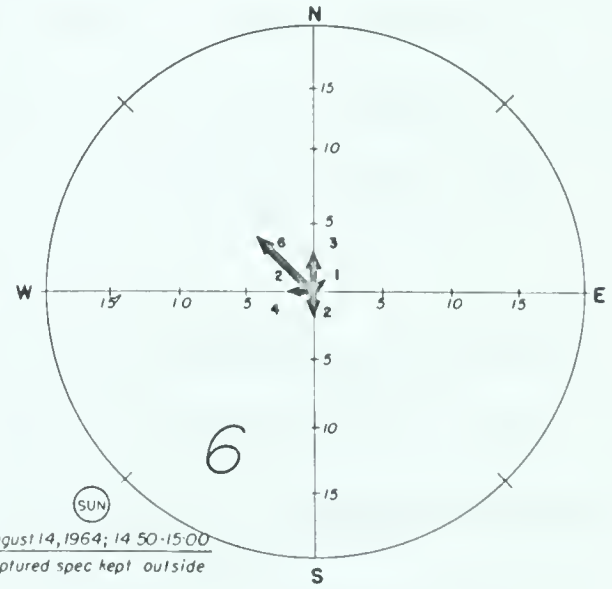
August 14, 1964; 10 25-10 30 AM
unsure of directions
captured spec. kept in laboratory



August 14, 1964; 14 45-14 50
unsure of directions
captured spec kept in laboratory



August 14, 1964; 10 30-10 40 AM
captured spec kept outside



August 14, 1964; 14 50-15 00
captured spec kept outside

FIG. 9.

Escape directions of captured specimens of *Pardosa glacialis*
kept outside in sunlight and captured specimens kept
in laboratory and exposed to a 100 watt lamp
shining from the east at all times

Aged or senile individuals tended to show less and less orientation as the season progressed. Cool weather also inhibited escape reactions as spiders apparently tried to get warm rather than escape.

Measurements of the position of the posterior eyes indicate that it would take a sun elevation of at least 50° above the horizon before the sun's rays would affect the spider's visibility and the sun rises only to 30° above the horizon at Lake Hazen. I suggest that the direction that Pardosa glacialis goes in relation to the sun - that is, to the right or left - is not intrinsic to each individual, but a factor of the direction in which the spider is resting immediately prior to the time of the escape. The spider's resting position is one that will allow it to present most of its body to the sun at one time. Regarding the spider from the sun's position, this would mean a line running north-west to south-east with the anterior end of the spider facing north-west, and from the graphs, it can be seen that most of the spiders tried to escape to the left.

Papi and Syrjä^{" "}mäki (1963) have conducted similar experiments with Arctosa cinerea (Fabr.) (Lycosidae), but have obtained different results. They have combined results of testing periods of rather long duration -- usually six hours. I feel that for these experiments long periods obscure the results. Therefore, I have recorded results for 15-25 minute periods so that variations in the spiders'

reactions can be more easily observed in relation to variation in the sun's position. Tests were made in the mid-morning and again in the late afternoon. Further, no theoretical escape direction has been assumed or considered.

Food

This species fed most readily on Chironomidae, and when hungry, fed on the smaller cyclorrhaphous flies. Blow flies and the flies of the same general size were left untouched. The species is also highly cannibalistic, but was not observed feeding on other species of spiders.

Parasites and Predators

Remains of P. glacialis were found in the crops and gizzards of several Snow buntings and Knots. There was no previous information found about vertebrate predators of this species.

Various degrees of parasitic castration in male and female P. glacialis by nematomorphs of the genus Hexameris have been observed at Hazen Camp. About one per cent of the specimens collected were infected and most of these were females. Possibly more careful examination of all the Hazen Camp specimens of P. glacialis might reveal a considerably higher rate of parasitism, for a parasitic infection is very hard to detect in the young spiders.

The ultimate effect of the parasite on the spider is death, as just before Hexameris emerges from the opisthosoma of the spider, the essential organs of the spider

are eaten. Spiders examined just after a parasite had emerged were found to be lacking in the main prosomatic muscles, the entire digestive system, fat bodies, and the entire reproductive system. An infected spider usually stopped feeding about one week before the parasite emerged, and during the last week such spiders were seen drinking quantities of water.

When the parasite was about to emerge, the spider crawled into a dark hole or corner. It took about 20 minutes for Hexamermis to emerge completely from the anterior end of the opisthosoma. The spider died about 30-60 minutes before the Hexamermis first emerged.

Some of the obvious external morphological characteristics for Hexamermis infection are these: lopsided or greatly enlarged opisthosoma; epigynum altered from the normal; legs shorter and thicker; sluggish or inactive spider; and some secondary sexual characteristics of the male not present or barely developed. A normal male appears gaunt and thin, but a parasitized male appears fat like a female full of eggs.

Parasitic castration in lycosids by Mermis (Mermithidae) has also been noted and described by Åke Holm^O (1941) and some examples that might be caused by parasites are cited and illustrated by Kaston (1961, 1963a, 1963b).

Material Examined

Approximately 3383 adults of this species were examined from Hazen Camp, one female from Payne River (59°30'N), Quebec, four males from "Manitoba", one male from Umiat,

Alaska, four females and three males from Mesters Vig, E. Greenland, and six females from Holsteinborg (approx. 63°N), W. Greenland.

Distribution

Greenland (East, $68-77^{\circ}\text{N}$; West, $61-75^{\circ}\text{N}$; Peary Land, $82-83^{\circ}\text{N}$). Ellesmere Island ($76-82^{\circ}\text{N}$). Baffin Island. Southampton Island. Manitoba. Umiat, Alaska. Payne River ($59^{\circ}30'\text{N}$), Quebec.

Pardosa glacialis appears to be a nearctic species only.

Figure 10 is a map of the distribution of this species.

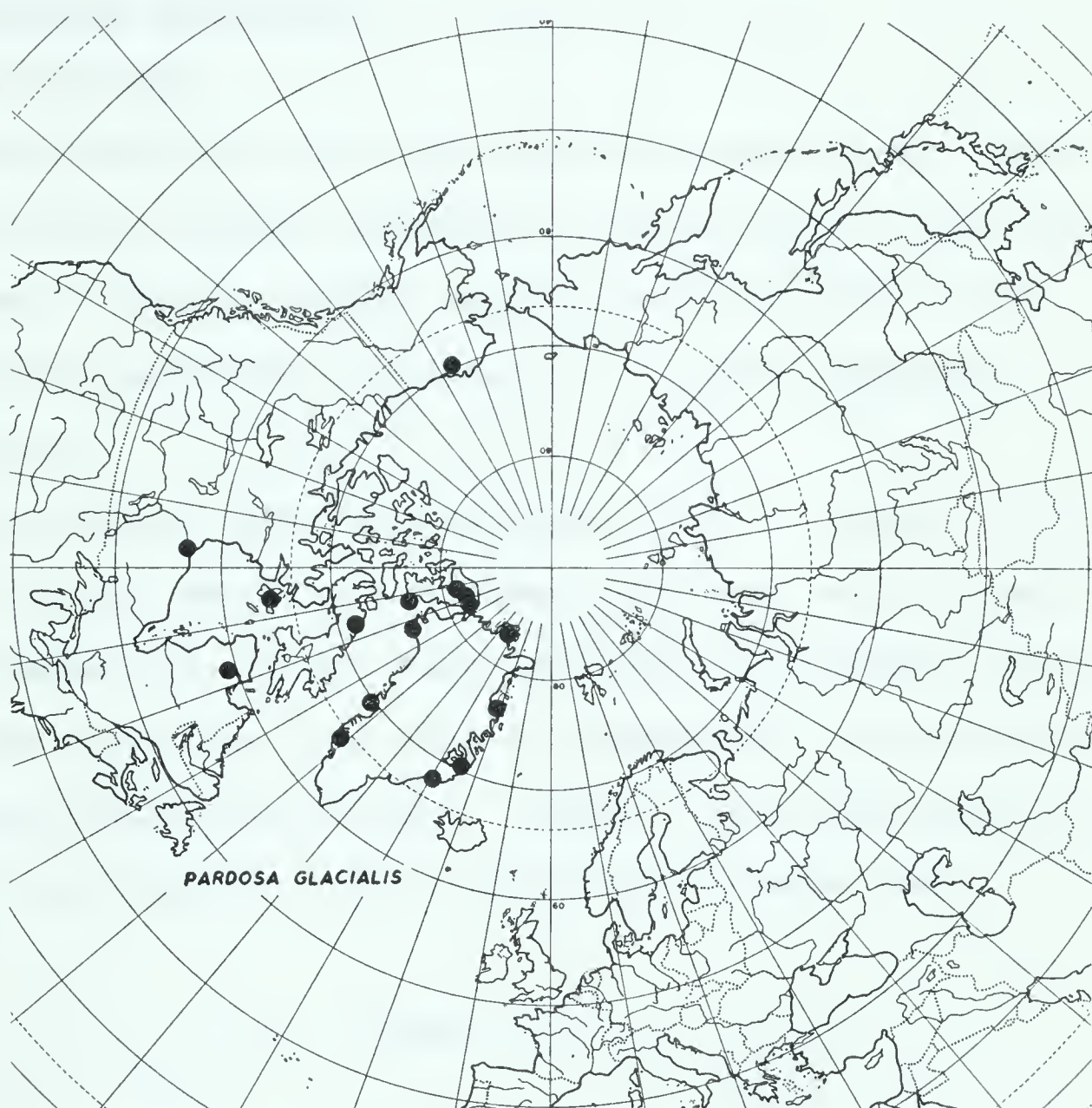


Figure 10. Distribution map of *Pardosa glacialis*.

Tarentula exasperans Pickard-Cambridge, 1877

(Figures 35, 36, 37)

Tarentula exasperans Pickard-Cambridge, 1877-283.

Arctosa exasperans: Bonnet, 1955-647, Tome II, vol. 1.

Tarentula exasperans: Braendegaard, 1960-8.

Tarentula exasperans: Turnbull, 1963-176.

Notes on Taxonomy

There has been some confusion about the classification of this species, mainly because of the scarcity of specimens in museums. Gertsch (1934) and Braendegaard (1960) have correctly replaced this species in the genus Tarentula.

Description

Braendegaard (1960-10) has described the female of this species and has measured the sizes of a male and a female. I have remeasured a Peary Land specimen and a number of the Hazen Camp specimens, and find Braendegaard's measurements a little more than half of mine. Table I shows the measurements of individuals of this species from Hazen Camp.

TABLE I

	CARAPACE		Total Length
	Length	Width	
MALES	3.35 mm.	2.76 mm.	7.06 mm.
FEMALES	3.78 mm.	2.96 mm.	8.73 mm.

The figures represent the means of 10 females and 20 males of Tarentula exasperans.

Natural History

Habitat

This species is a member of the arid arctic faunal element, and is the most pronounced heliophile of all the species found at Hazen Camp. T. exasperans was taken only on dry southwest and south-facing slopes (rarely on southeast-facing) in and near clumps of Dryas integrifolia. Where this species is abundant, P. glacialis was almost never found except for occasional wandering males. T. exasperans overwinters by burrowing about 2.5 cm into the ground at the bases of Dryas integrifolia. It was never found in the night shadow areas or areas of slopes of more than 20°.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

Figure 11 shows the main period of activity of the males and females of this species. The females are never as active in wandering as the males. Sexual activity of the males is between June 28 and July 6, though they can be found before and after these dates. The adults are not known to overwinter.

Courtship

Newly emerged males and females were collected on the day they emerged, and then kept in separate cages for one week. On June 29, 1964, a male was introduced to a cage containing four females. Upon contact with a female, the male became excited. There was a short sparring contact, then each fled in different directions. The female went for about five cm and stopped, but the male began running about in small circles and figure-eights as though injured, with

GRAPH SHOWING FREQUENCY
DISTRIBUTION OF MALES AND FEMALES
of Tarentula exasperans
DURING THE SUMMER OF 1964

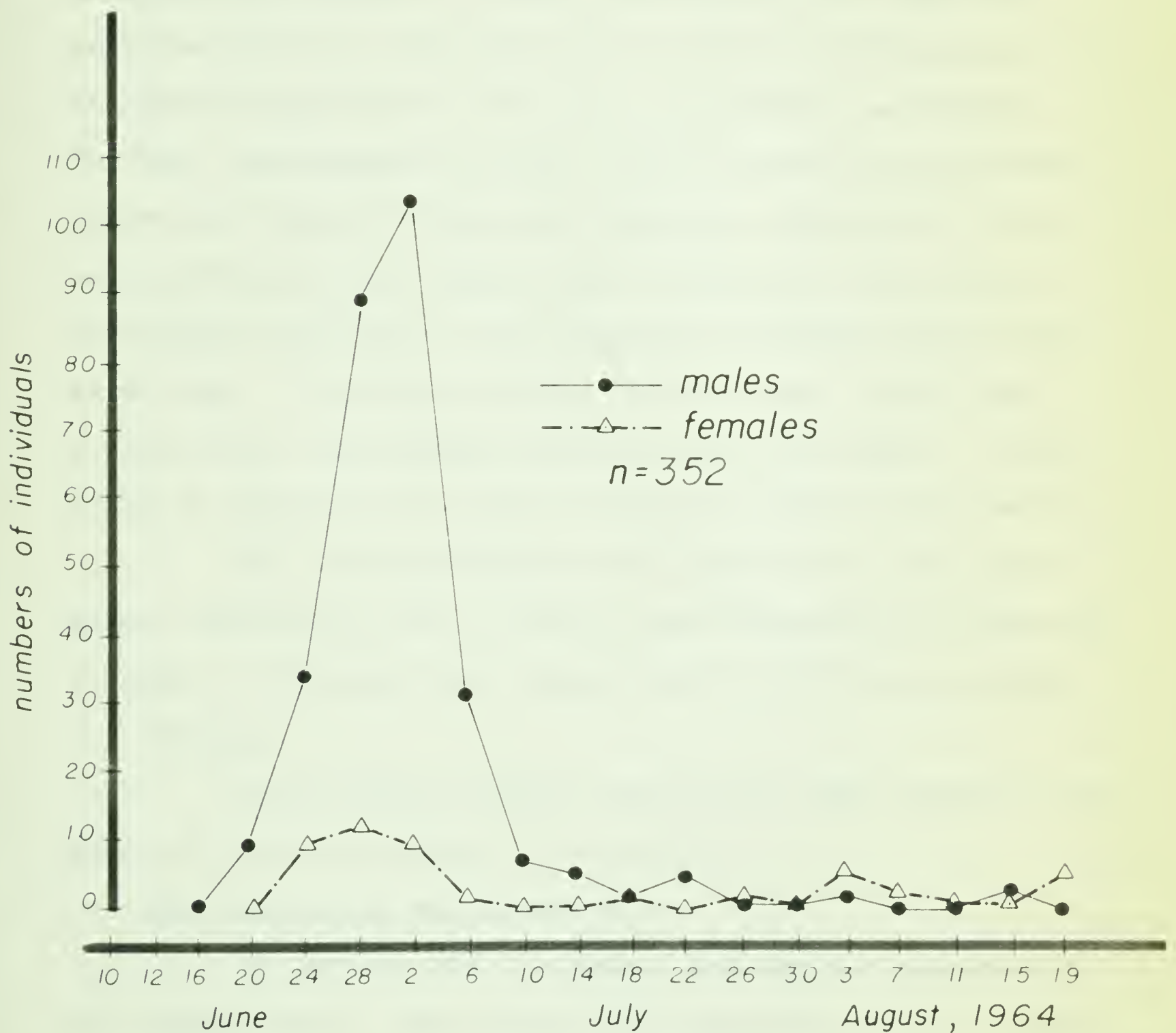


Fig. II.

the front two pairs of legs drawn up against the Carapace. Upon each contact with a female, the scurryings were intensified.

On June 30, 1964, two males and two females were placed in a large cage outside. On July 5, the males began courting the females. In all, five males were observed courting females, and there were no obvious differences. The general pattern of courtship is described as follows. The male approached the female, and at contact became more active and began circling and scurrying. Thereafter, the male approached the female almost invariably from behind, and tapped the female on the abdomen or fourth leg with his first legs. The female merely lifted a leg, and the male scurried off, but quickly returned and tried again. On the ninth or tenth try, the male retired for about five minutes.

The above procedures were watched for over five hours continuously, but no males were successful at mounting a female. The males were found dead the following morning.

Mating

There was no mating observed for this species, nor even any partial attempts at mounting.

Egg Laying and Egg-laying Site

On July 6, 1964, a female and egg sac appeared in the outside cage. The process for egg-laying is as follows. The female T. exasperans laid eggs and made the egg sac in

much the same way as Pardosa glacialis (see p. 33). The difference was that T. exasperans dug a hole in the ground about two cm deep and at the bottom of the hole made a round cavity about one cm in diameter. Once in the hole, the female closed over the entrance with webbing. The hole was completely lined with silk. The whole process, including the hole digging, took about four hours, but the female often remained inside the hole for another three to six hours. When the female emerged, the light brown egg sac was attached to the spinnerets. The egg sacs were larger and rounder than those of Pardosa glacialis. There are about 70 eggs per sac of T. exasperans. There is no great size difference between egg sacs.

Life History and Number of Instars

The young were never observed clustered on the opisthosoma of the female as were the young of P. glacialis. About 204 specimens of various instars were examined to determine the number of instars and length of life cycle. The results were poor, mainly because there were a great many adults and penultimates, but very few of the preceding instars. However, by inspection, it appears that there may be as many as seven or eight instars, and a life cycle that may last six or seven years, if it is assumed that each instar lasts about one year.

Escape Orientation

No escape orientation was observed in Tarentula exasperans males or females, as the species relies on cryptic

colouration rather than speedy retreats to elude enemies and predators. The gray and black colouration makes individuals almost invisible when they are in or near the dead leaves of Dryas integrifolia. Specimens observed in the field did not run at my approach but remained still. Even when the ground was shaken under them, they moved only if their positions were somewhat precarious.

Food

It was found by experiment that this species prefers the smaller Diptera so abundant at Hazen Camp, though Collembola will be eaten if caught. Small blow flies (Phormia and Protocalliphora spp.) were refused even when the wings were cut off. T. exasperans has very small chelicerae for a spider of its size, and so perhaps, eats smaller prey.

Parasites and Predators

No parasites or predators of this species were observed, nor was cannibalism seen.

Material Examined

About 397 adults of this species were examined from Hazen Camp, one male from Peary Land, Greenland, which was loaned by the Zoological Institute in Copenhagen, three females and one male from Umanak, Greenland, loaned by the American Museum of Natural History, New York, and one male and seven immatures from Tanquary Fjord, Ellesmere Island.

Distribution

Greenland (Peary Land; Umanaq, $64^{\circ}40'N$; Saunders Island, $76^{\circ}35'N$, $69^{\circ}45'W$). Ellesmere Island (Discovery Harbour, $81^{\circ}45'N$; Hazen Camp; Tanquary Fjord, $81^{\circ}28'N$, $76^{\circ}50'W$).

This species is known only from the high Nearctic Region.

Figure 12 is a map of the distribution of this species.

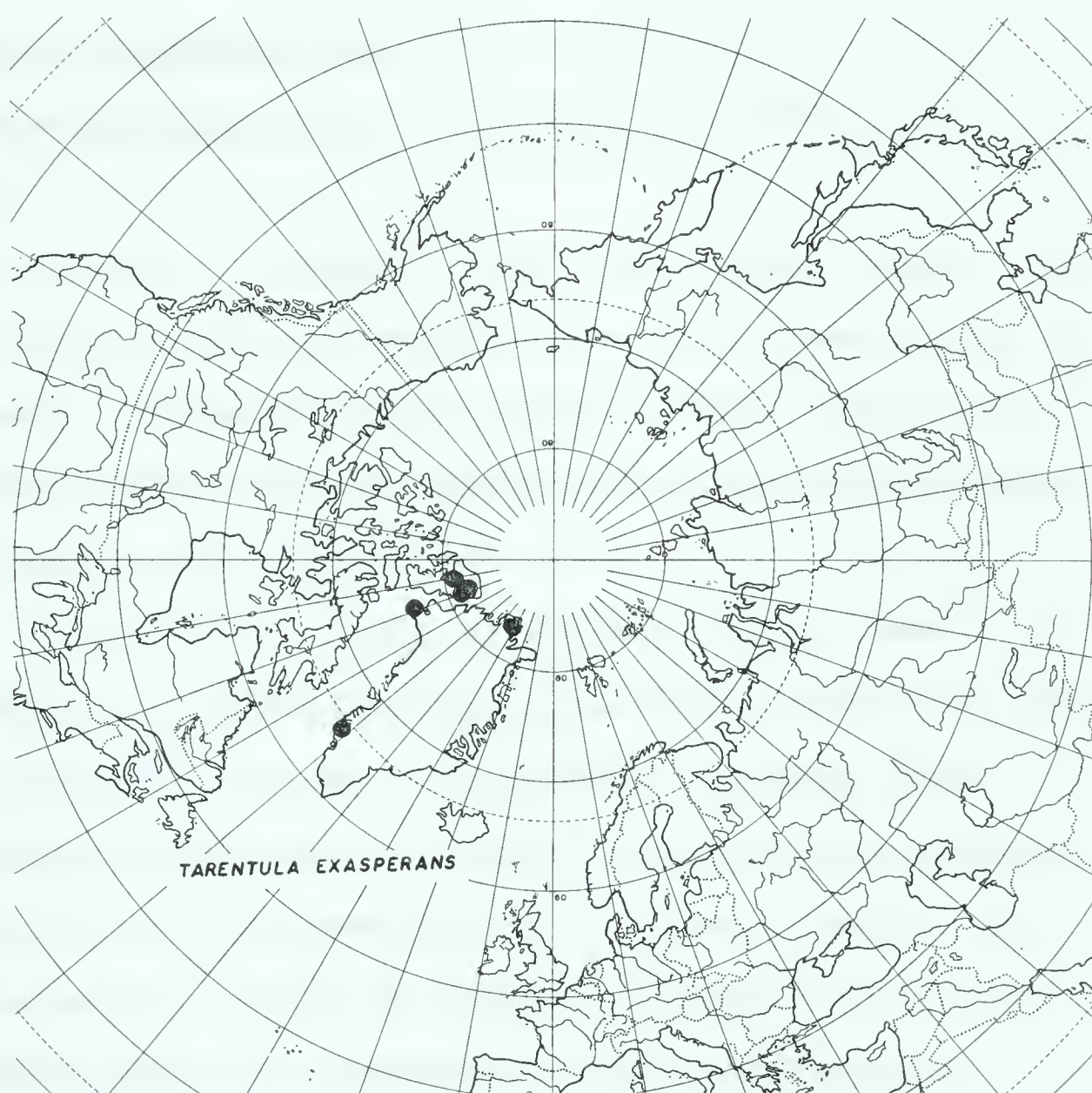


Figure 12. Distribution map of *Tarentula exasperans*.

Linyphiidae

Collinsia spitsbergensis (Thorell, 1871)

(Figures 65, 69)

Erigone spetsbergensis Thorell, 1871-692, (lapsus calami).

Typhochraestus spitsbergensis: Bonnet, 1959-4747, Tome II,
vol. 5.

Collinsia spetsbergensis: Holm, 1960b-512.

Collinsia spitsbergensis: Braendegaard, 1960-11.

Description

Female. Colour: carapace brown, marked and shaded with dark brown; chelicerae pale yellow-brown with brown specks on the basal half; sternum brownish; labium brown, rimmed with gray; pedipalp coxae brownish, gnathobases pale gray, abdomen gray-brown; spinnerets gray-brown.

Structure: size, moderately small, about 2.25 mm long; carapace distinctly longer than wide, about 0.86 mm x 0.69 mm, gradually rising to the cephalic region, then sloping downward to the eyes; cephalic lobe lacking; clypeus height about 3.5 to 4.0 diameters of an anterior median eye; posterior row of eyes slightly procurved; posterior medians slightly smaller than the laterals and all about equally spaced at 2.0 diameters of one median; anterior row almost straight, but slightly recurved; anterior medians slightly more than 2.0 diameters of one from the laterals; median ocular quadrangle longer than wide and wider posteriorly; promargin of cheliceral fang groove armed with five stout teeth; chelicerae slightly reclined; legs moderately long.

Tibiae I-III each with two spines; tibia IV with one spine at 0.41; Tm I about 0.64; Tm II about 0.61; Tm III about 0.46; Tm IV lacking.

Male. Color: like that of the female.

Structure: like that of the female, except for the following: total length about 2.0 mm; carapace longer than wide, about 0.89x0.74 mm.

Tibia I-III with two spines; tibia IV with one spine; Tm I about 0.56; Tm II about 0.50; Tm III about 0.47 or 0.48; Tm IV lacking.

Natural History

Habitat

This species is a member of the humid arctic faunal element (Braendegaard, 1946). Specimens are usually found in river deltas in areas with fine, muddy sand covered with thick Equisetum and some Salix. These areas are always very wet or damp, and are occasionally flooded in the spring. If the ground begins to crack with dryness, then C. spitsber-
gensis retreats into these cracks.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

The adults are found throughout the season, though there is a slight increase of captured adults at the end of the summer season. The species overwinters at the bases of the vegetation. The adults are not known to overwinter.

Parasites and Predators

No parasites or predators were observed preying on

this species, but it can be assumed that the young are eaten by other species and by their own adults.

Material Examined

About 22 adults were examined from the Hazen Camp material, two females from Marie Bay, Bathurst Island (Leonard Hills, collector, summer, 1964), 164 adults from Weatherhall Bay, Melville Island (Larry Law, collector, summer, 1964), and two females from Alert, Ellesmere Island (personal collection, 1963).

Distribution

Alaska (Arctic Coast). Marie Bay, Bathurst Island. Weatherhall Bay, Melville Island. Hazen Camp and Alert, Ellesmere Island. Greenland (Peary Land; E. Greenland, 62-65°N; W. Greenland, 70°N). Iceland. Spitsbergen. Sweden. Novaya Zemlya. Siberia. New Siberian Islands.

This species is high Holarctic in distribution. The records from Melville and Bathurst Islands greatly improve the distribution pattern.

Figure 13 shows a distribution map of this species.

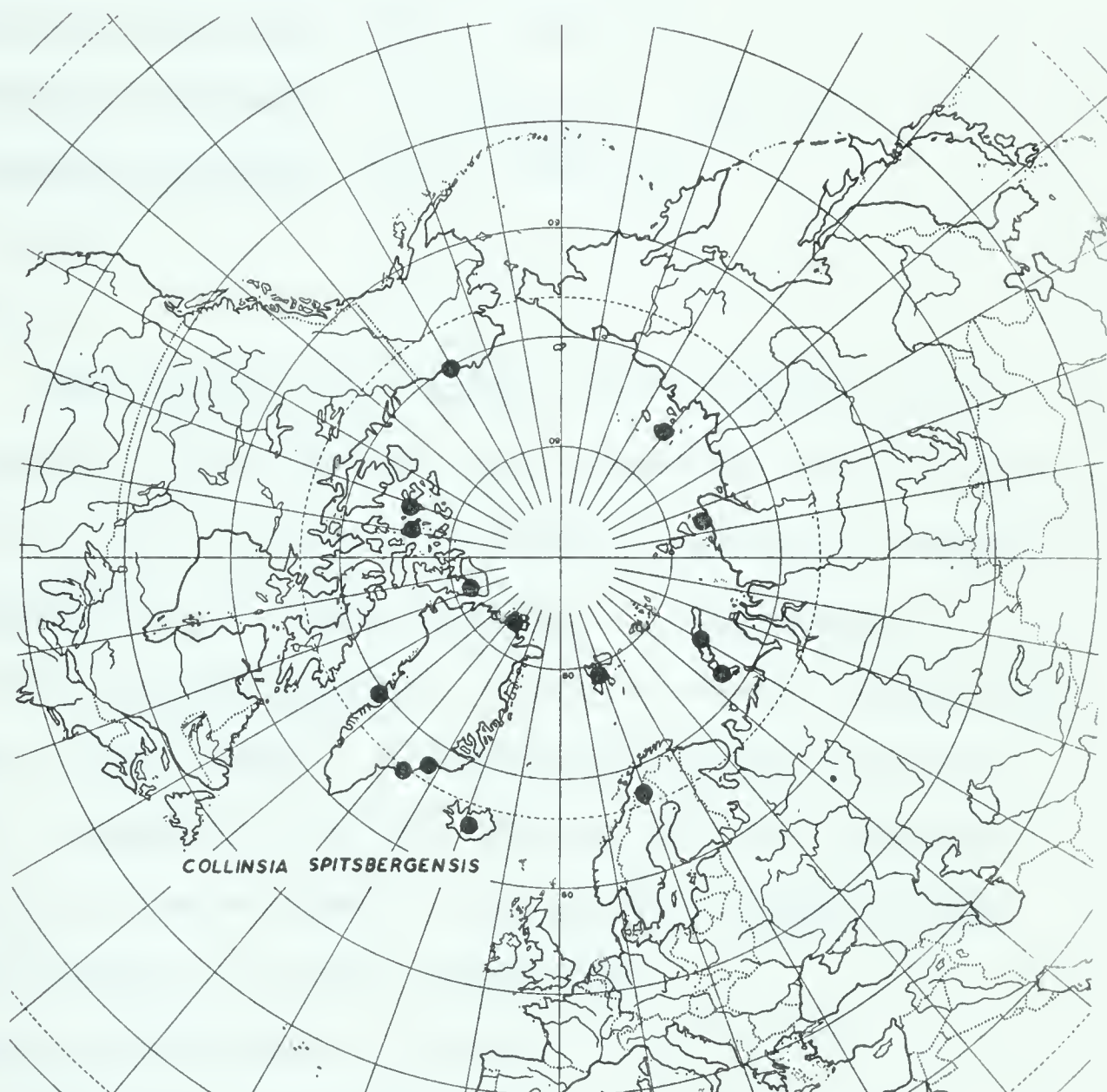


Figure 13. Distribution map of *Collinsia spitsbergensis*.

Collinsia thulensis (Jackson, 1934)

(Figures 66, 67, 68)

Coryphaeolanus thulensis Jackson, 1934-614, 615, 618.

Coryphaeolanus thulensis: Bonnet, 1956-1231, Tome II,
vol. 2.

Collinsia thulensis: Holm, 1958a-531.

Collinsia thulensis: Holm, 1958b-48.

Collinsia thulensis: Braendegaard, 1960-12.

Collinsia thulensis: Holm, 1960a-112.

Natural History

Habitat

This species is a member of the humid arctic faunal element. Specimens are most commonly found in gravelly parts of river deltas with scanty vegetation, mostly Dryas integrifolia and Salix arctica. C. thulensis, in contrast to C. spitsbergensis, is active mostly during the early part of the season. Overwintering forms were not found, but it appears from the habitat that the species overwinters on the surface of the ground, perhaps under some of the stones or in the vegetation.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

The active breeding period is indicated in figure 14. Note the low number of adults caught at the end of the season. From this I assume that the adults do not overwinter.

GRAPH SHOWING FREQUENCY
DISTRIBUTION OF MALES AND FEMALES
OF Collinsia thulensis
DURING THE SUMMER OF 1964

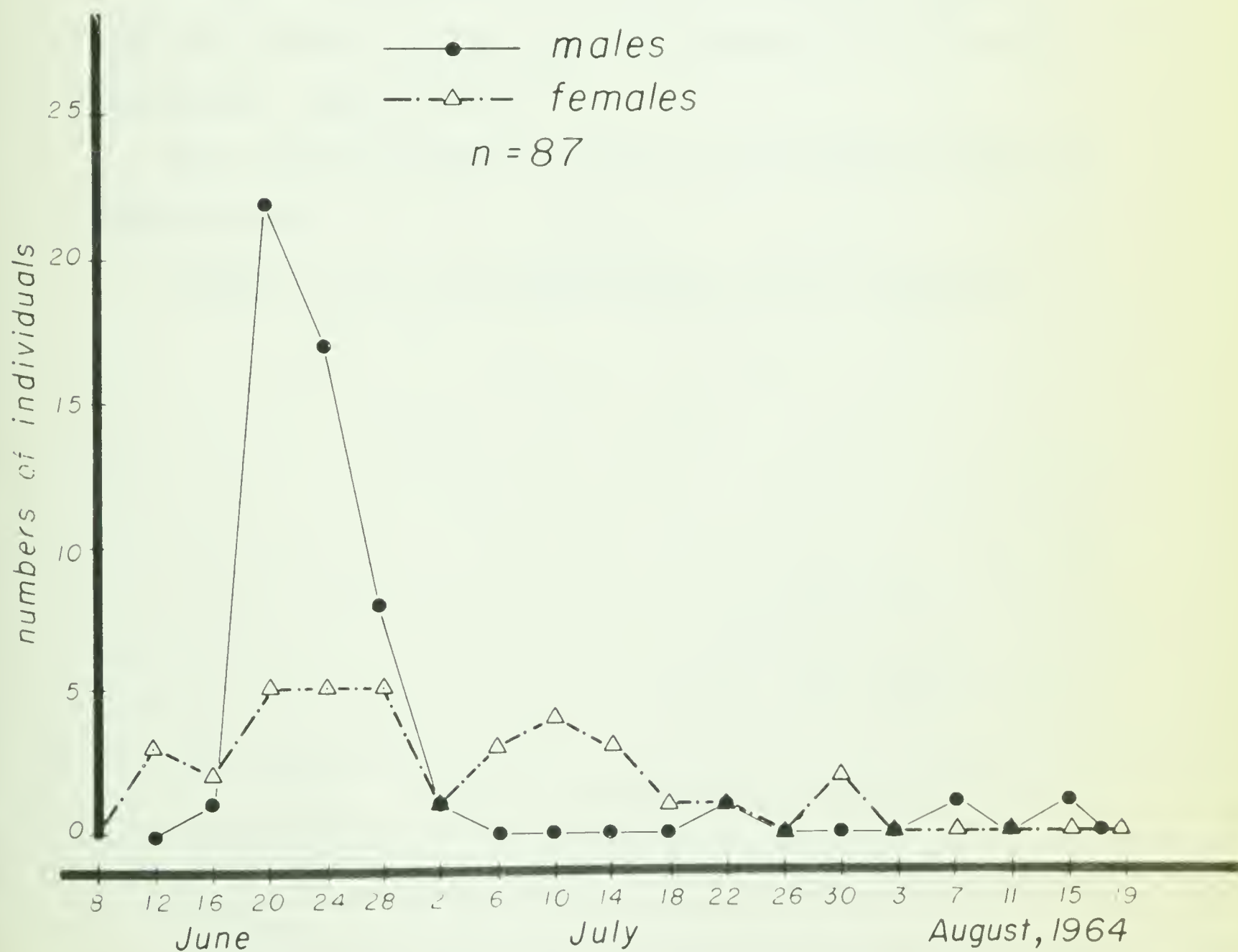


Fig. 14.

Food

Captured specimens kept in cages fed readily on mites (acarina) and Collembola, but refused all flies offered, including very small Ceratopogonidae.

Material Examined

About 100 adults of this species were examined from Hazen Camp, and six females and one male from Thule, Greenland (personal collection).

Distribution

Kotzebue, Alaska. Hazen Camp, Ellesmere Island. Greenland (Thule; Peary Land; and between 70-75°N in E. Greenland). Spitsbergen.

This species appears to have an incomplete Holarctic distribution.

Figure 15 is a distribution map of this species.

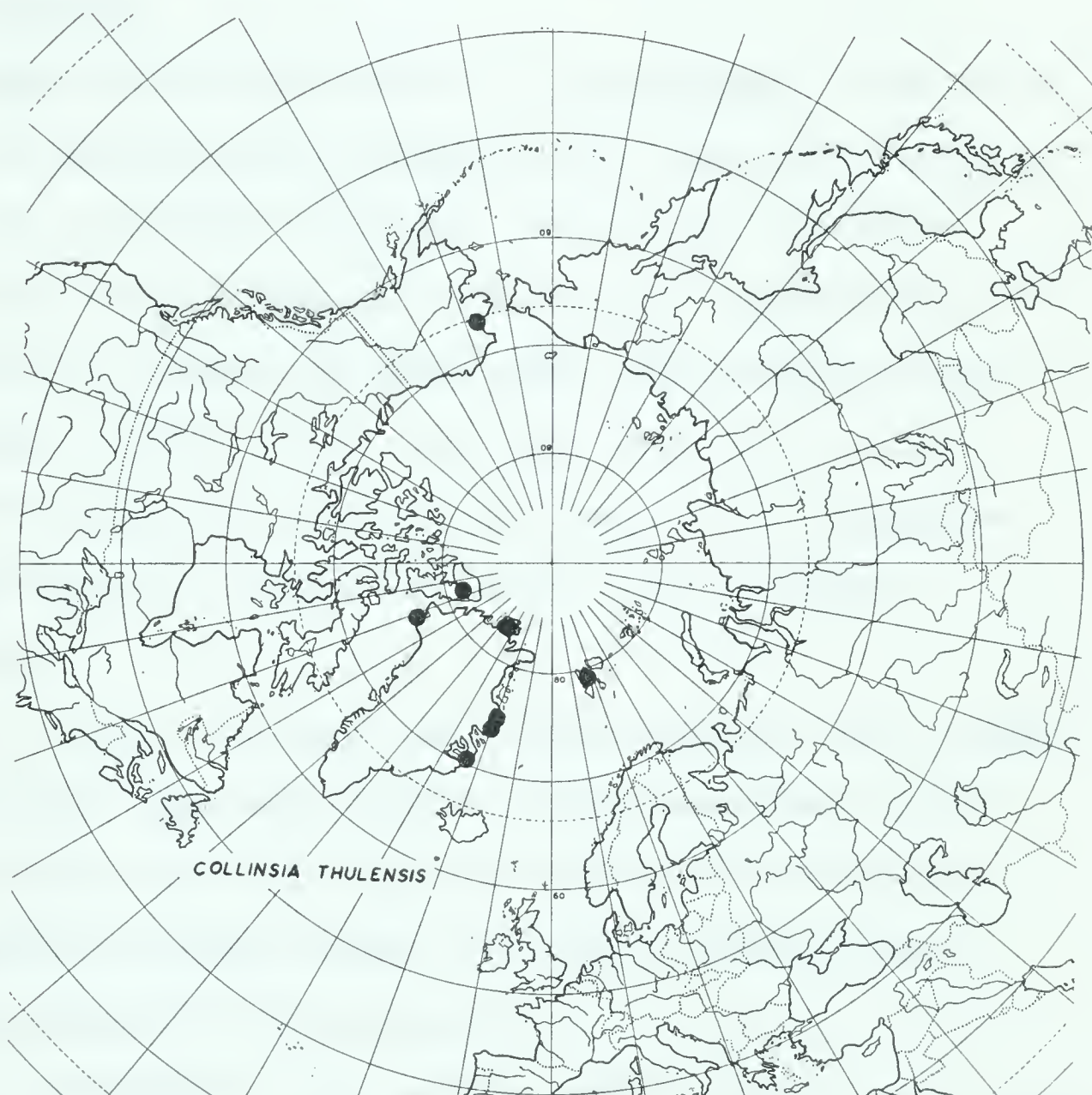


Figure 15. Distribution map of *Collinsia thulensis*.

Cornicularia karpinskii (Pickard-Cambridge, 1873)

(Figures 51, 52, 53)

Erigone karpinskii Pickard-Cambridge, 1873-447.

Cornicularia karpinskii: Bonnet, 1956-1223, Tome II, vol. 2.

Cornicularia karpinskii: Holm, 1960a-113.

Cornicularia karpinskii: Holm, 1960b-513.

Notes on Taxonomy

As suggested by Holm (1958a), C. karpinskii seems to be a complex of species whose components are not understood, or else this is a polytypic species. None of the 30 males examined showed any variation in the tibial apophysis, a feature that is variable in some other populations of this species (Holm, 1958a-53,54). The only observed variable feature in this species was the two lobes of the epigynum, whose proportions of length and width varied slightly.

Description

Male. Colour: carapace pale yellow-brown; eyes ringed with dark brown; legs pale yellow; opisthosoma pale gray-green with four red-yellow spots on the dorsum; sternum golden brown with brown margin; chelicerae golden brown; labium pale brown with gray margin.

Structure: size medium small, entire length about 2.31 mm; carapace distinctly elongate, 0.96 mm long x 0.72 mm wide; carapace gradually rising to the head part, dropping forward and down to the anterior median from the posterior

median eyes, then the clypeus drops vertically from the anterior medians; horn placed midway between the anterior and posterior medians, projecting forward and upward, barely, if at all, extending beyond the vertical face of the clypeus; horn with a greater diameter distally than basally; height of clypeus about 3.5 to 4.0 diameters of an anterior median eye; chelicerae vertical or nearly so, perhaps slightly reclined; stridulation organ on lateral sides of chelicerae distinct; eyes equal or subequal in size; posterior row decidedly procurved and all eyes equally spaced at about 1.8 diameters of one posterior median; anterior medians about 0.20 diameters of one apart, and about 0.80 diameters of one from the laterals.

Sternum longer than wide and with a sparse cover of thin hairs; legs not strikingly long or short; tarsal claws with a full complement of teeth, and resembling a comb; the two tibial apophyses of the pedipalp elongate and projecting forward and down atop the cymbium; median apophysis curving down and forward under the lateral, then continuing parallel but ventral to it; median apophysis bifid terminally, one broad, flat, lateral projection with blunt spines pointing outward below and beyond the lateral apophysis, and the other pointed and running parallel to the terminal part of the lateral apophysis; the lateral apophysis curved slightly to the median line, then turned outward at the terminal one-third, ending in a blunt point; the embolus and other parts of the tarsus within the cymbium as in figure 52.

Anterior margin of the opisthosoma protruding over the carapace; four small, pale red-yellow depressions on the dorsum of the opisthosoma, the anterior pair closer together than the posterior; average of five measurements of the opisthosoma is 1.35 mm.

Tibiae I-II with two spines; tibiae III-IV with one spine each at 0.20 and 0.19 respectively; Tm I about 0.53; Tm II about 0.50; Tm III about 0.47; and Tm IV about 0.31.

Female. Colour: colour like that of the male.

Structure: structure like the male except that the horn is lacking; average length of five females is about 2.55 mm, carapace 0.93 mm, and the opisthosoma about 1.60 mm; tibiae I-III with two spines; tibiae IV with one spine at 0.16 to 0.17; Tm I about 0.46-0.47; Tm II about 0.46 to 0.47; Tm III about 0.47; Tm IV about 0.50.

Natural History

Habitat

This species is a member of the humid arctic faunal element. It lives in the cracks in the ground and ventures onto the ground surface only when the relative humidity is above 90%. The soil is calcareous with sparse vegetation. The adults and young were found deep in the cracks in the ground where the relative humidity approached 100%. No overwintering sites were found, but I assume that individuals overwinter fairly close to the ground surface.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

Figure 16 shows the frequency distribution of this species during the summer of 1964. There are no comparable data from 1963. C. karpinskii appears to be able to overwinter in the adult stage, as adults were caught before the spring melt.

Parasites and Predators

No parasites or predators were found for this species.

Material Examined

About 78 specimens of this species were examined from Hazen Camp, and two from the Aleutian Islands, Alaska.

Distribution

Unalaska Island and Umnak Island, Alaska. Banff, Alberta. Yellowstone Park, Wyoming. New York. Newfoundland. Akpatok Island, Ungava Bay, N.W.T. Lake Hazen, Ellesmere Island. East and West Greenland. Iceland. The Faeroes. England and Scotland. The Swiss Alps. Northern Scandinavia. Spitsbergen. Franz Joseph Land. Novaya Zemlya. Waigatsch Island. Lake Baikal, Siberia. Kamchatka.

This species is circumpolar in distribution, though, as mentioned in the notes on taxonomy, it is not certain that this distribution represents only one species.

Figure 17 is a map of the distribution of this species.

GRAPH SHOWING FREQUENCY
DISTRIBUTION OF MALES AND FEMALES
OF Cornicularia karpinskii
DURING THE SUMMER OF 1964

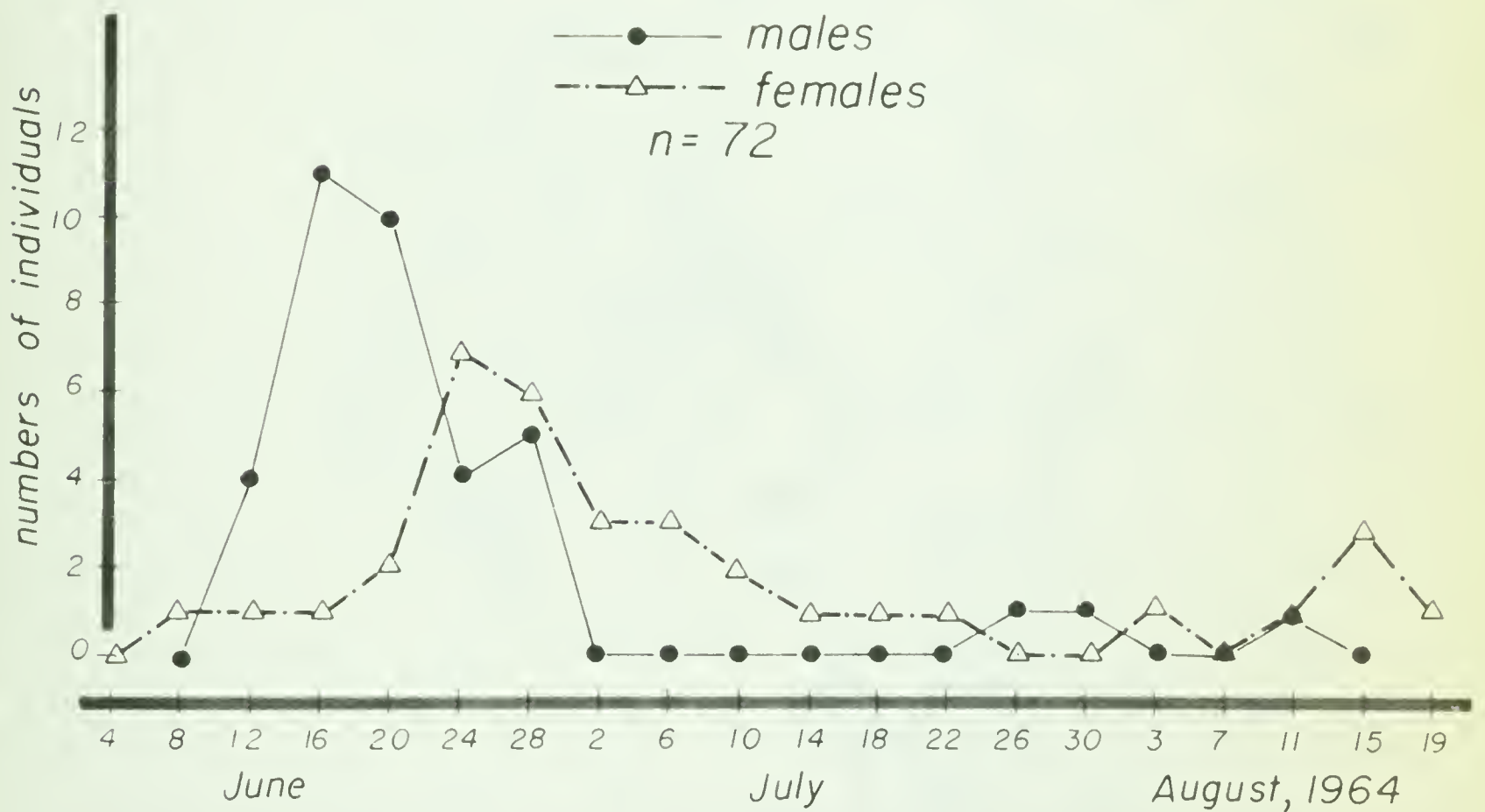


Fig. 16.

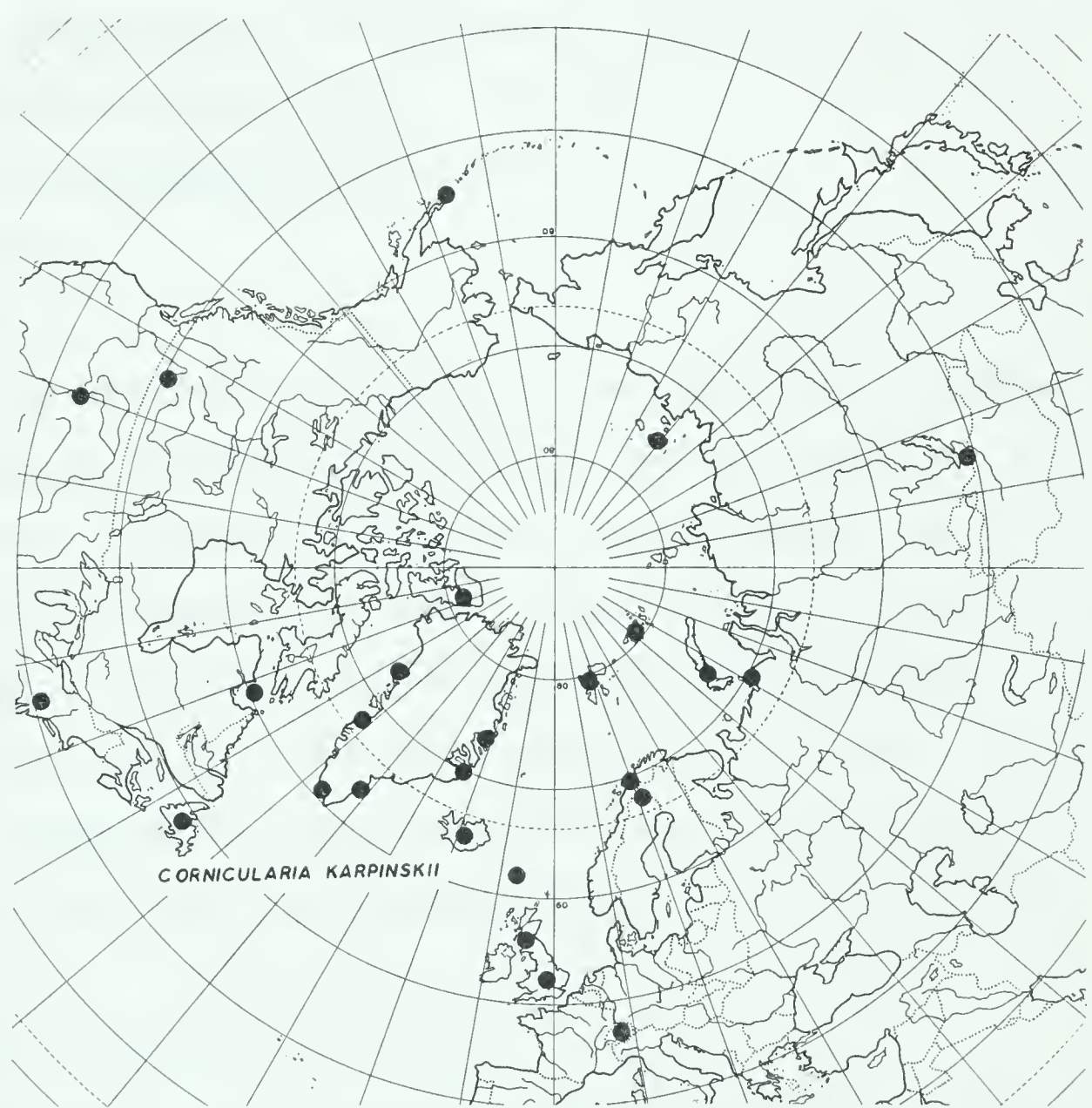


Figure 17. Distribution map of *Cornicularia karpinskii*.

Erigone psychrophila Thorell, 1871

(Figures 42, 43, 44)

Erigone psychrophila Thorell, 1871-689.

Erigone psychrophila: Bonnet, 1956-1772, Tome II, vo. 2.

Erigone psychrophila: Holm, 1958a-52.

Erigone psychrophila: Holm, 1958b-532.

Erigone psychrophila: Braendegaard, 1960-12.

Erigone psychrophila: Holm, 1960a-116.

Erigone psychrophila: Holm, 1960b-513.

Natural History

Habitat

This species is a member of the humid arctic faunal element. Erigone psychrophila is restricted to vegetated, marshy areas at the edges of ponds and quiet streams and to water-saturated, vegetated slopes. These data do not quite agree with Holm (1958a-53) who states that E. psychrophila belongs to both the dry and humid faunae. The species apparently overwinters in the vegetation and can often be found moving under water in the slush snow during the spring melt.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

Figure 18 shows the main activity period and summer distribution in numbers. The males are very active during the mating season, then are scarce thereafter. The sharp drop in the number of females caught in early July can be attributed mostly to the females secluding themselves while egg laying. The drop-off in early August might be attributed

GRAPH SHOWING FREQUENCY
DISTRIBUTION OF MALES AND FEMALES
OF *Erigone psychrophila*
DURING THE SUMMER OF 1964

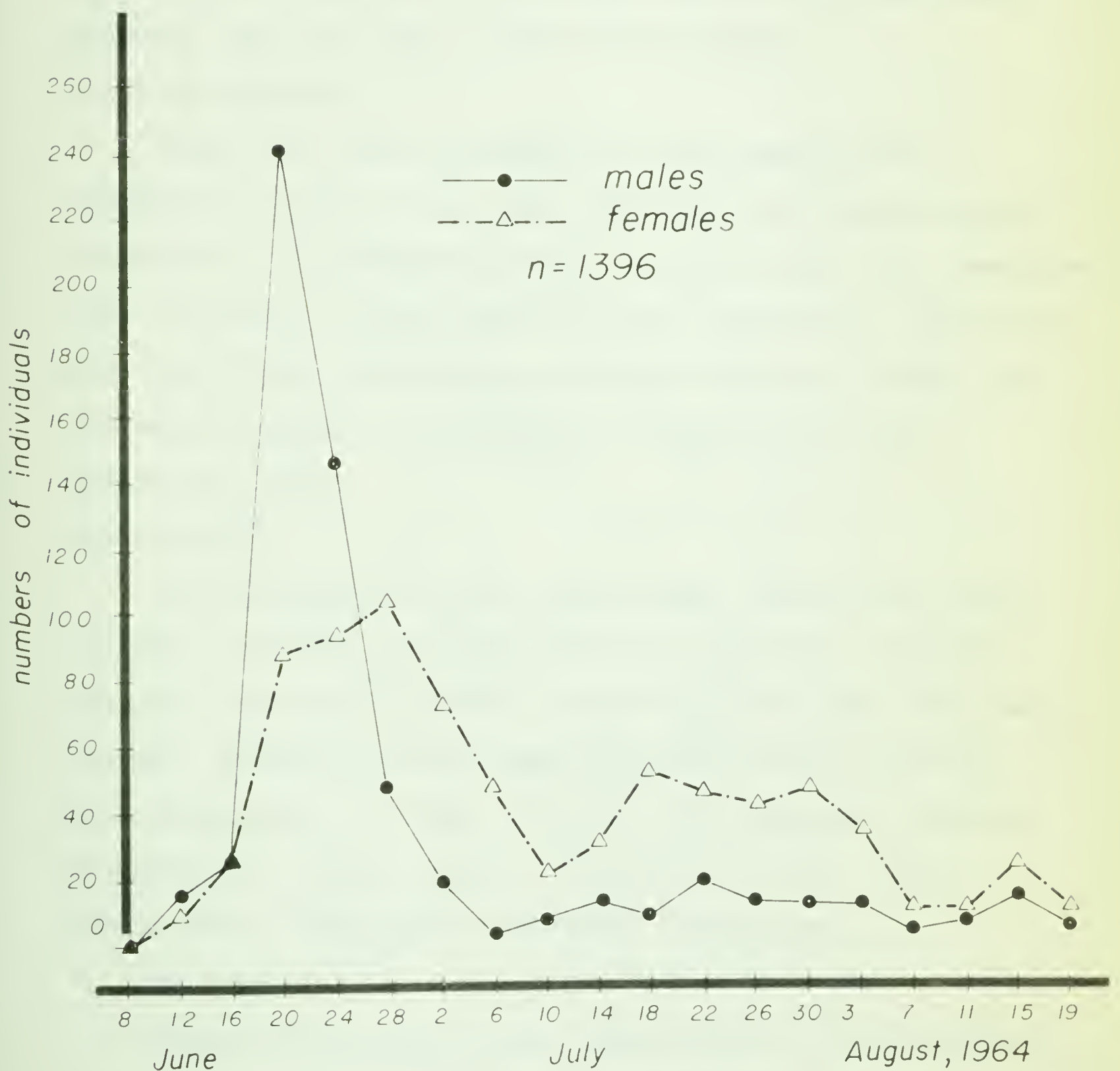


Fig. 18.

to death of the females and to inactivity because of cool weather. The adults are apparently able to overwinter as they are found at the very beginning of the season.

Parasites and Predators

No parasites or predators of this species were found, but I assume that as in the case of all these small spiders, they are prey to the larger spiders.

Material Examined

About 1983 adult specimens of this species were examined from Hazen Camp, nine females, three males and six immatures from Bathurst Island, two females and four immatures from Cornwallis Island (Leonard Hills, collector, 1964), one male from Thule, Greenland (personal collection, 1964), and 355 adult specimens from Melville Island (Larry Law, collector, 1964).

Distribution

Coastal Alaska (Arctic and Bering). Weatherhall Bay, 75°46'N, 106°56'W), Melville Island. Marie Bay, Bathurst Island. Cornwallis Island. Alert and Hazen Camp, Ellesmere Island. Greenland (Peary Land; East Greenland, 65-77°N; West Greenland, 74-77°N). Iceland. Spitsbergen. Northern Scandinavia. Novaya Zemlya. Waigatsch Island. Franz Joseph Land. New Siberian Islands. Kamchatka.

This species is circumpolar in distribution.

Figure 19 is a map of the distribution of this species.

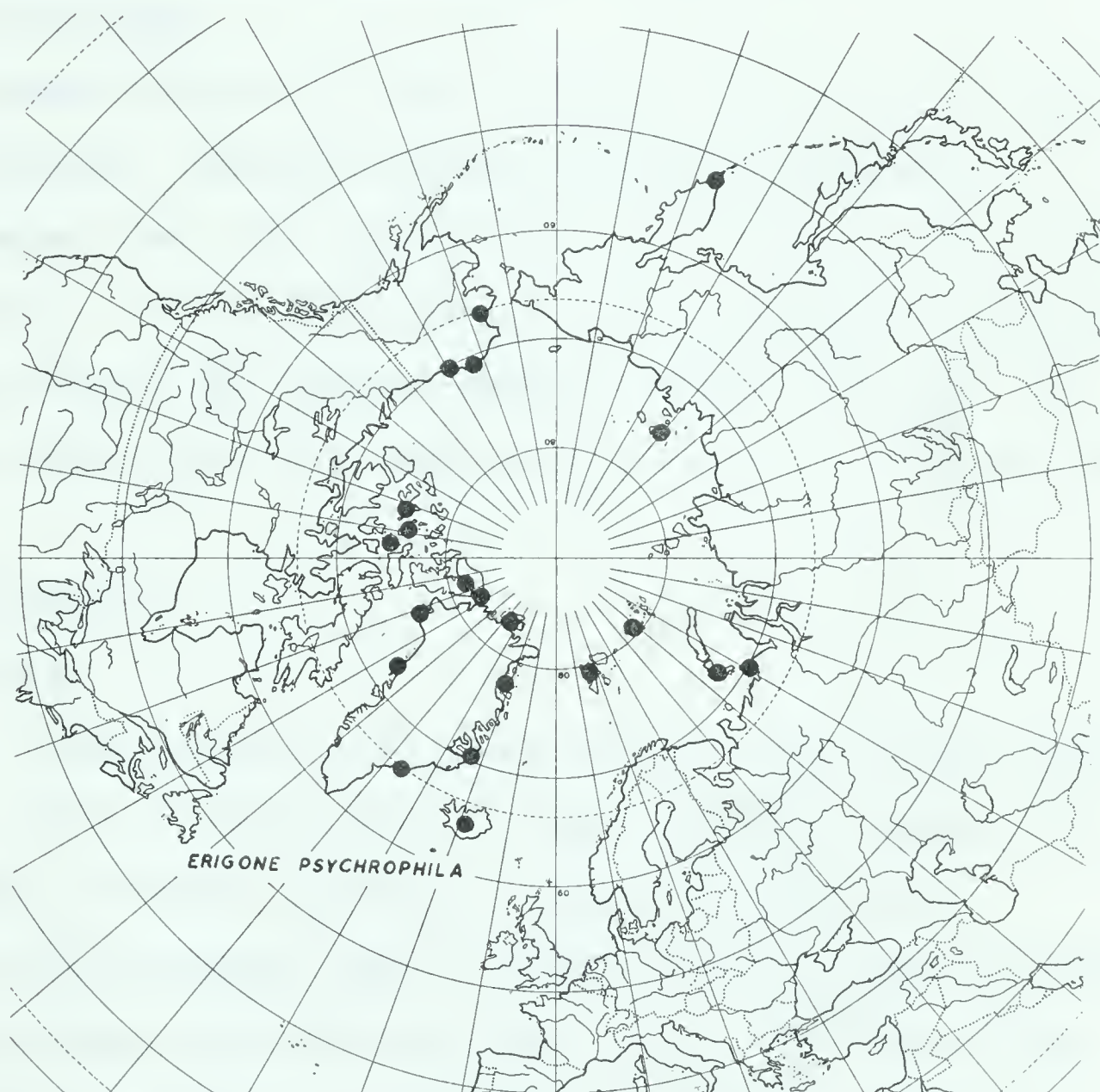


Figure 19. Distribution map of *Erigone psychrophila*.

Hilaira vexatrix (Pickard-Cambridge, 1877)

(Figures 45, 46)

Erigone vexatrix Pickard-Cambridge, 1877-280.

Hilaira vexatrix: Bonnet, 1957-2214, Tome II, vol. 3.

Hilaira vexatrix: Holm, 1958b-532.

Hilaira vexatrix: Braendegaard, 1960-14.

Notes on Taxonomy

Schenkel (1950-59) lists a record of this species from Banff, Alberta. Without seeing the Alberta specimens, I cannot agree that this species has anything but a high arctic distribution. Holm (1956) does not list Schenkel's reference, nor does he give any comment about an Alberta record. All previous records for this species are above the 70°N Latitude line.

Natural History

Habitat

This species is a member of the humid arctic faunal element, as it is found only in damp, vegetated regions that are rarely, if ever, inundated. Many specimens were collected in the damp, upper edges of ponds and small streams that have dense vegetation and many rocks under which they may crawl to overwinter. Specimens of Hilaira vexatrix overwinter under rocks and in cracks in the ground about one to two cm deep. They are active on the ground as soon as the ground temperature is above freezing, even though the air temperature is well below freezing.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

Figure 20 shows the activity periods of this species during the summer. The June 16 to 24 peak is the period of courting and mating, and the peak at the end of the season is the increase of adults that will overwinter. Therefore, the peaks belong to two distinct populations of adults. The adults of this species overwinter.

Courtship

Courtship was not observed in this species.

Mating

Mating was not observed in this species, though the males died about five days after mating.

Egg Laying and Egg-laying Site

On June 15, 1964, two females laid eggs which were in small, lenticular, white egg sacs. On June 18, a third female laid eggs. The egg sacs were suspended in tangle webs about one cm above the ground. The females remained with the eggs until after the young had emerged. One of the females ate the male after mating.

On July 3, the small spiders were visible inside the egg sacs, and on July 12, the young from the eggs laid on June 15 emerged. On July 20, the young from the third sac emerged. The three sacs contained 9, 11, and 8 eggs respectively. The egg sacs were kept at a constant 100% relative humidity.

The females did not feed and were not fed for a period of six weeks, and at the end of this period showed

GRAPH SHOWING FREQUENCY
DISTRIBUTION OF MALES AND FEMALES
OF Hilaira vexatrix
DURING THE SUMMER OF 1964

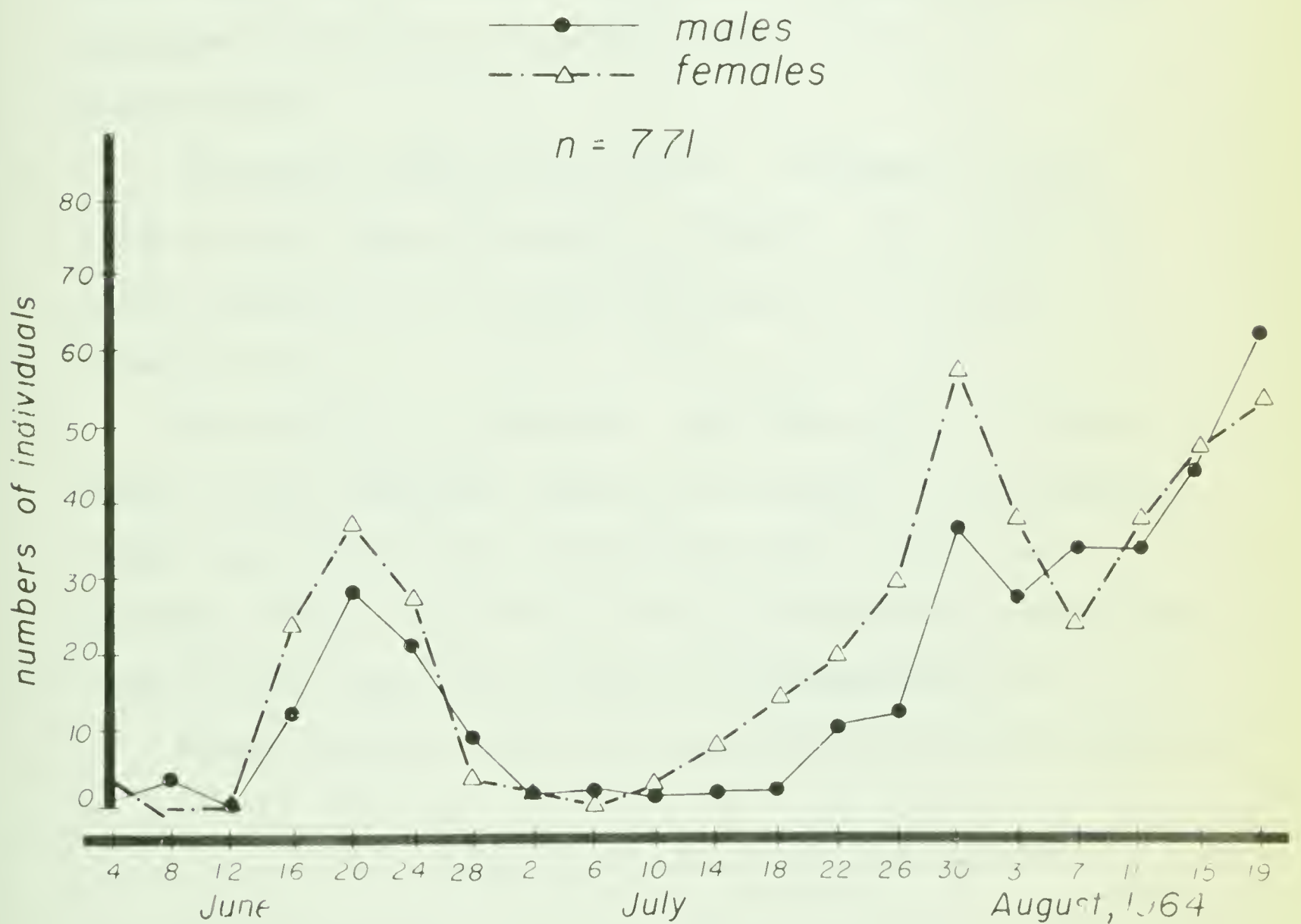


Fig. 20.

no signs of stress. Collembola were introduced as food, but the females showed no interest. All three females were dead by August 10.

Parasites and Predators

No parasites or predators of this species were found. A great number of the immatures die by cannibalism.

Material Examined

About 2159 adults of this species were examined from Hazen Camp, and two males and eighteen females from Thule, Greenland (personal collection, 1964).

Distribution

Greenland (Peary Land; Thule). Ellesmere Island (Alert; Hazen Camp; Discovery Harbour). N.E. Coast of Baffin Island. Arctic Coast of Alaska. (??) Banff, Alberta (??).

This species is Nearctic. The chances of it being found in the Palearctic Region are slight, as Braendegaard (1958) has studied the Iceland material, Locket and Millidge (1951, 1953) have studied the British material and Wiehle (1956, 1960) has studied the German material.

Figure 21 is a map of the distribution of this species.

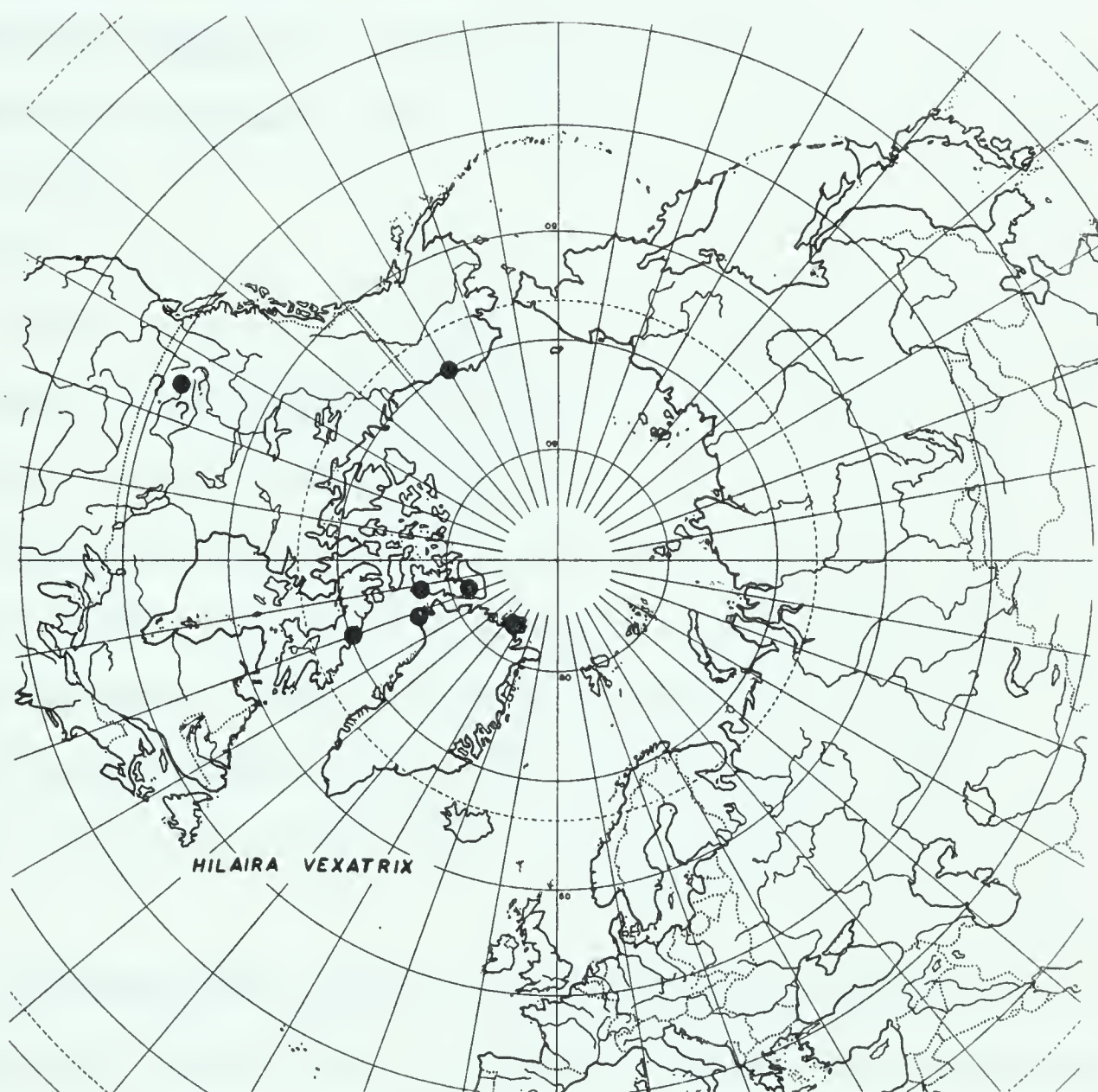


Figure 21. Distribution map of *Hilaira vexatrix*.

Meioneta nigripes (Simon, 1884)

(Figures 62, 63, 64)

Microneta nigripes Simon, 1884-439.

Meioneta nigripes: Bonnet, 1957-2756, Tome II, vol. 3.

Meioneta nigripes: Braendegaard, 1958-80.

Meioneta nigripes: Holm, 1958a-56.

Meioneta nigripes: Braendegaard, 1960-15.

Meioneta nigripes: Holm, 1960b-513.

Natural History

Habitat

This species is a member of the humid arctic faunal element. Individuals live deep in soil cracks or under medium to large-sized stones on very dry south- to southwest-facing slopes. That is, the macroclimatic conditions are dry, but the microclimatic conditions are humid. Braendegaard (1946, 1960) considers this species to be euryoequous (euryecious), but examination of the microclimate leaves no doubt that it is a humid arctic species.

Overwintered adults were collected on June 1, 1964, before the spring thaw. Inactive females were collected from under rocks that were frozen to the ground surface. These females became active within ten seconds of the time they were collected and exposed to the sun.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

Figure 22 shows the peak of activity for the species at the beginning of the season. As mentioned above, the adults overwinter.

GRAPH SHOWING FREQUENCY
DISTRIBUTION OF MALES AND FEMALES
of Meioneta nigripes
DURING THE SUMMER OF 1964

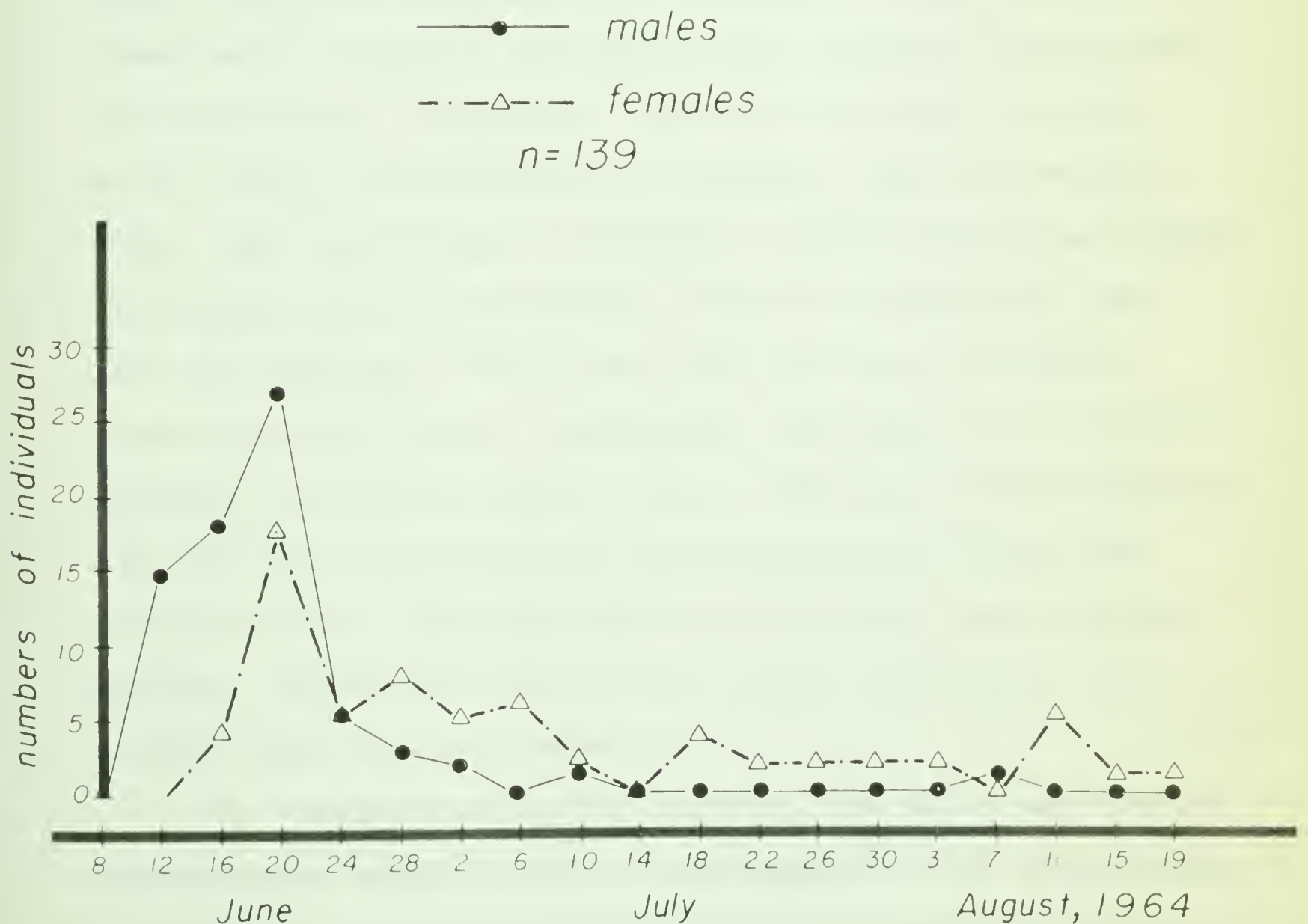


Fig. 22.

Courtship

Courtship was observed in several pairs of this species and no variation was seen. The courtship is summarized as follows. Observations were started on June 1, 1964. Males and females were placed in a small bottle with soil and rocks. Random wandering was observed for several hours, after which time the males selected areas that they would mildly defend. These were small areas in which each male had built a small, horizontal, almost invisibly-thin sheet web about 2 x 4 mm, and from which the males hung upside down. Each male remained on this sheet for about 15 minutes. These were, I believe, the sperm webs, though no sperm droplets were seen. Eventually, each male searched for and built a small tangle web near a female. When the web was built, each male began a combination of activities as follows: each palpus was jerked forward and back alternately, much like two pistons. At the same time, the whole body was jerked back and forth. Coordinated with these was a gradual approach towards the female. About three mm from the female, the male began body-jerking and strumming one front foot, then the other. Then the female started the same sort of motions. When their front legs touched, the female fled with the male in jerky pursuit.

During the next 45 minutes, the males and females engaged their front legs for brief moments, then broke contact. At 90 minutes, one of the females built a small tangle and sheet web, then hid in one corner of the web. In a few minutes, the female was found by the male. The male began

improving the sheet by making it more substantial. Then the male began strutting as the web was laid down. Occasionally the male approached the female and strummed the first pair of legs, and the female strummed in reply. In about ten minutes the female joined the male in improving the web and the two finished the preparations in eight minutes. The web was made while both were upside down.

At this point the male and female stopped and remained still for five minutes. Gradually, with increasing vigour, the male began jerking in the web, and shortly after the female began strumming. Slowly, the male stopped jerking and began stumming, and approached the female as he did so. Then the palpi began pushing back and forth like pistons. (Both spiders were still hanging upside down from the sheet web.) When their legs touched, the female did not scurry away, but relaxed the front two pairs of legs so that the prosoma hung down from the web.

Mating

The male came forward so that his carapace touched the sternum of the female. At the same time, the right palpus shot forward, grappled with the epigynum, and lifted part of it away. The haematodocha expanded and the embolus twisted spirally into the spermathacal duct. The right palpus was engaged for one second, then the left palpus was applied for the same length of time. During the next 18 minutes, 25 seconds, the male alternated the palpi 380 times. At no time was the male held captive by the female.

The male left the female for 40 seconds and retired to a small corner of the web where possibly the sperm were replenished in the palpi. The male then rejoined the female and during the next 6 minutes, 41 seconds, alternated the palpi 150 times before again returning to the corner to replenish the sperm. Returning to the female, the male again alternated the palpi on the epigynum, but now more slowly. In 6 minutes, only 40 alternations; at 11 minutes, only 6 more times; and in the last 33 minutes, the palpi were alternated 37 more times. The last 6 couplings took about two minutes each. The female effected the finish. Shortly thereafter, the two fled in opposite directions.

More pairs were observed mating. The females seemed to be eager to mate several times with any male and often tried, but no male could be persuaded to engage a female - any female - more than once.

Egg Laying and Egg-laying Site

Four days after mating on June 5, 1964 two females laid eggs in small, round, white egg sacs. The egg sacs were attached directly to the side of the container. As with H. vexatrix, the eggs were kept in 100% relative humidity. More eggs were laid by other females on July 12 and August 24.

Emergence of the Young

On July 3, 1964, eight young emerged from each egg sac laid on June 5. During the development of the eggs, the females stayed within two to three cm of the eggs.

Food

On July 12, Collembola were introduced to the females and young for food. The females fed immediately. I also observed that females captured and bit several Collembola, leaving them inactive in the tangle web about the egg sac, and later returned to feed on them. The young spiders appeared to be too small to feed on Collembola. Most of the young died by cannibalism. The females of this species refused to eat anything but Collembola and Acarina, even though they were offered small Diptera and spiders.

Parasites and Predators

No parasites or predators of this species were found.

Material Examined

About 157 adults of this species were examined from Hazen Camp. None were seen from other localities.

Distribution

Ellesmere Island (Hazen Camp). Greenland (Peary Land; W. Greenland at 63°N; E. Greenland from 63-70°N). Iceland. Spitsbergen. Jan Mayen Island. The Faeroes. Scotland. North Sweden. Novaya Zemlya. The French Alps. The Swiss Alps. The Tyrolian Alps.

This species is mainly Palearctic in distribution, but the Hazen Camp record makes it Holarctic. Judging from the known distribution, it is likely to be found across the high Nearctic.

Figure 23 is a map of the distribution of this species.

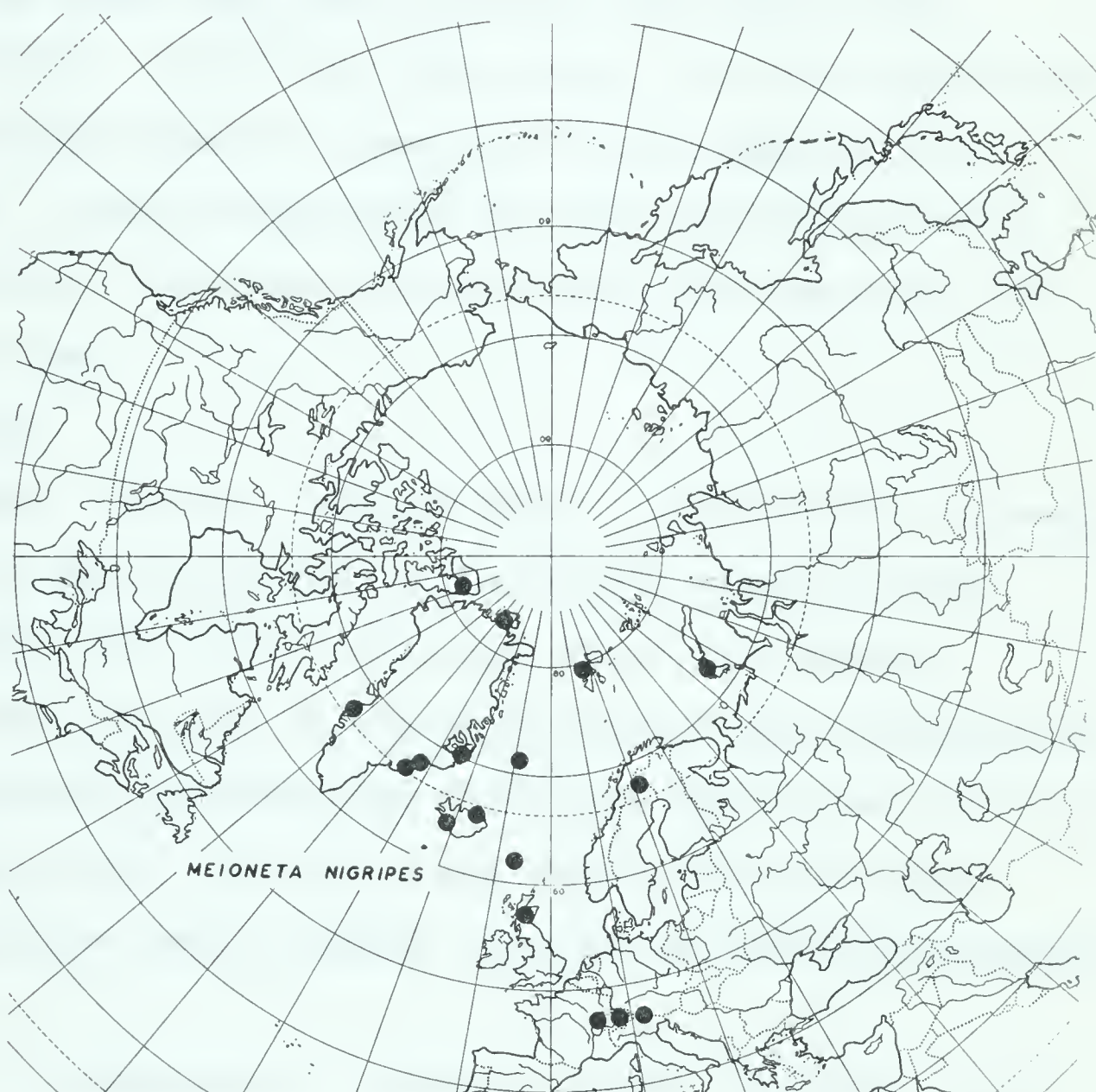


Figure 23. Distribution map of *Meioneta nigripes*.

Minyriolus pampia Chamberlin, 1948

(Figures 47, 48, 49, 50)

Minyriolus pampia Chamberlin, 1948-539.

Minyriolus pampia: Turnbull, 1963-176.

Notes on Taxonomy

Previous to the collections made at Hazen Camp, this species was known only from one male from Clyde River, Baffin Island. In 1963 and 1964, about 520 males and females and an unknown number of immatures of this species were collected. I have redescribed the male and have provided illustrations. The female is here described and drawn for the first time.

Description

Female. Colour: carapace brown, splotched and streaked with dark brown; chelicerae yellow-brown; sternum brown; labium brown, but rimmed with gray; coxae of pedipalpi yellow brown, but gray at the gnathobases; legs and pedipalpi yellowish brown, flecked with gray-black spots near the joints; opisthosoma ovate, pubescent, gray-black with fine green streaks and four small reddish spots on the dorsum; spinnerets brown.

Structure: carapace rounded, cephalic region slightly elevated; height of clypeus about 3.5 diameters of an anterior median eye; eyes small; posterior row slightly procurved; posterior medians about 2.0 diameters of one apart, and about 1.5 diameters of one from the posterior laterals;

anterior row almost straight; anterior medians about half of an anterior lateral.

Anterior medians about one diameter apart, and each about 1.7 diameters from the anterior laterals; median ocular quadrangle longer than wide and wider behind than in front; chelicerae reclined; sternum only slightly longer than wide, and separating the hind coxae by almost the length of one.

Total body length 1.85 ± 0.15 mm; carapace length 0.62 ± 0.03 mm; carapace width 0.59 ± 0.02 mm; legs moderately short, metatarsi slightly longer than tarsi; pedipalp tarsus lacking a spine or claw at the tip; metatarsi each bearing one long trichobothrium at 0.74 or 0.75; tibiae I-III with two spines, tibiae IV with one spine.

Male. Colour: the colour of the male is like that of the female.

Structure: the structure of the male is like that of the female except for the following points. Total length 1.59 ± 0.11 mm; carapace length 0.63 ± 0.01 mm; carapace width 0.61 ± 0.02 mm; tibiae I-III with two spines, tibiae IV with one spine; Tm IV at 0.78.

Natural History

Habitat

This species is a member of the humid arctic faunal element. It was found only on densely-vegetated slopes which are permanently water-saturated, and which are south- and

southwest-facing. It is further restricted to the night shadow area.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

Figure 24 shows the main period of activity of the males of this species. I am not able to explain the higher peak of the females which coincides with the peak of the males. Adults apparently overwinter, as adult individuals were found in the slush ice at spring melt.

Parasites and Predators

No Parasites or predators of this species were observed.

Material Examined

About 581 adults of this species were examined from Hazen Camp. The holotype was not seen.

Distribution

This species is known only from Hazen Camp, Ellesmere Island, and River Clyde, N.E. Baffin Island, N.W.T., Canada (70°N, 70°W).

Figure 25 is a distribution map of this species.

GRAPH SHOWING FREQUENCY
DISTRIBUTION OF MALES AND FEMALES
of Minyriolus pampia
DURING THE SUMMER OF 1964

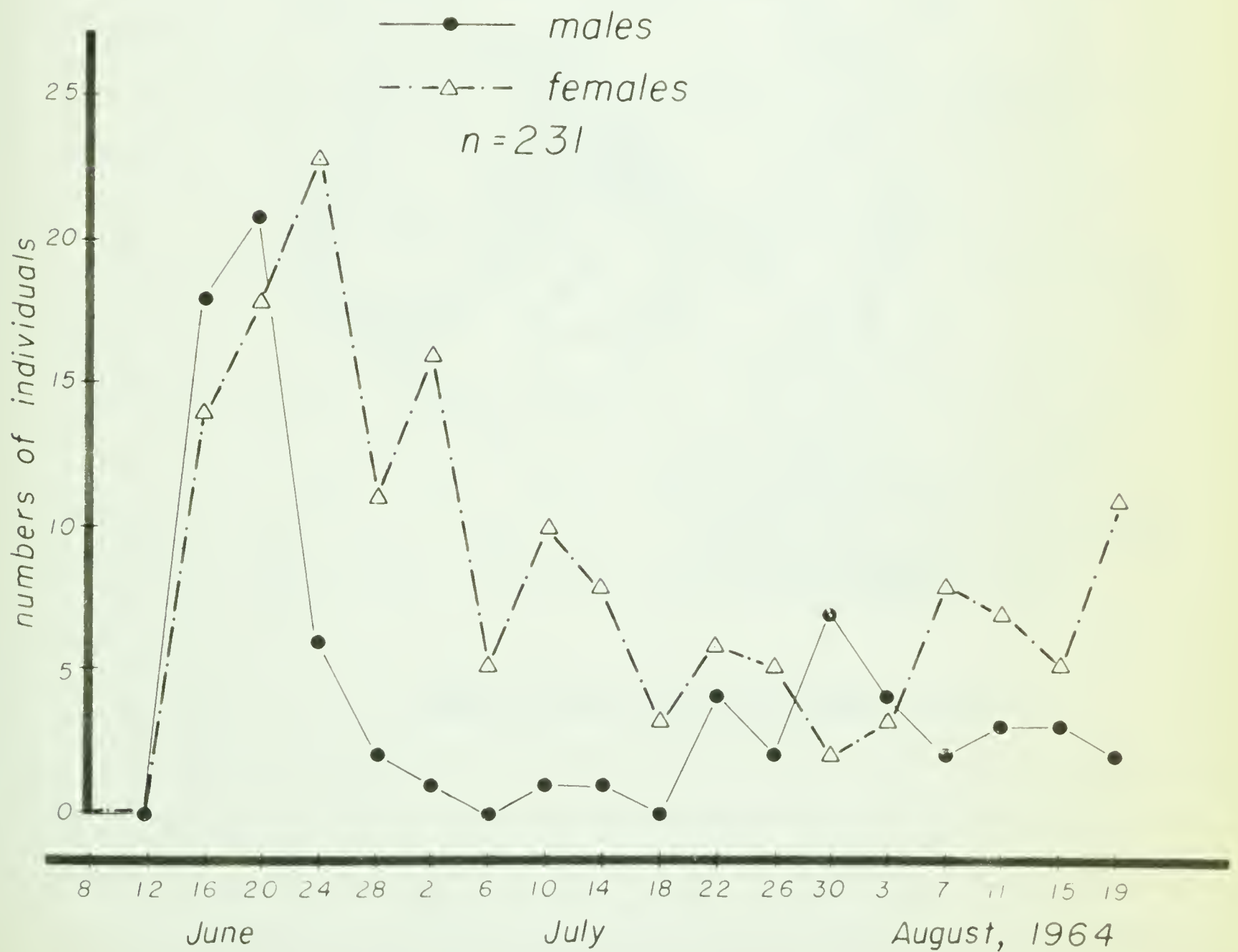


Fig.24.

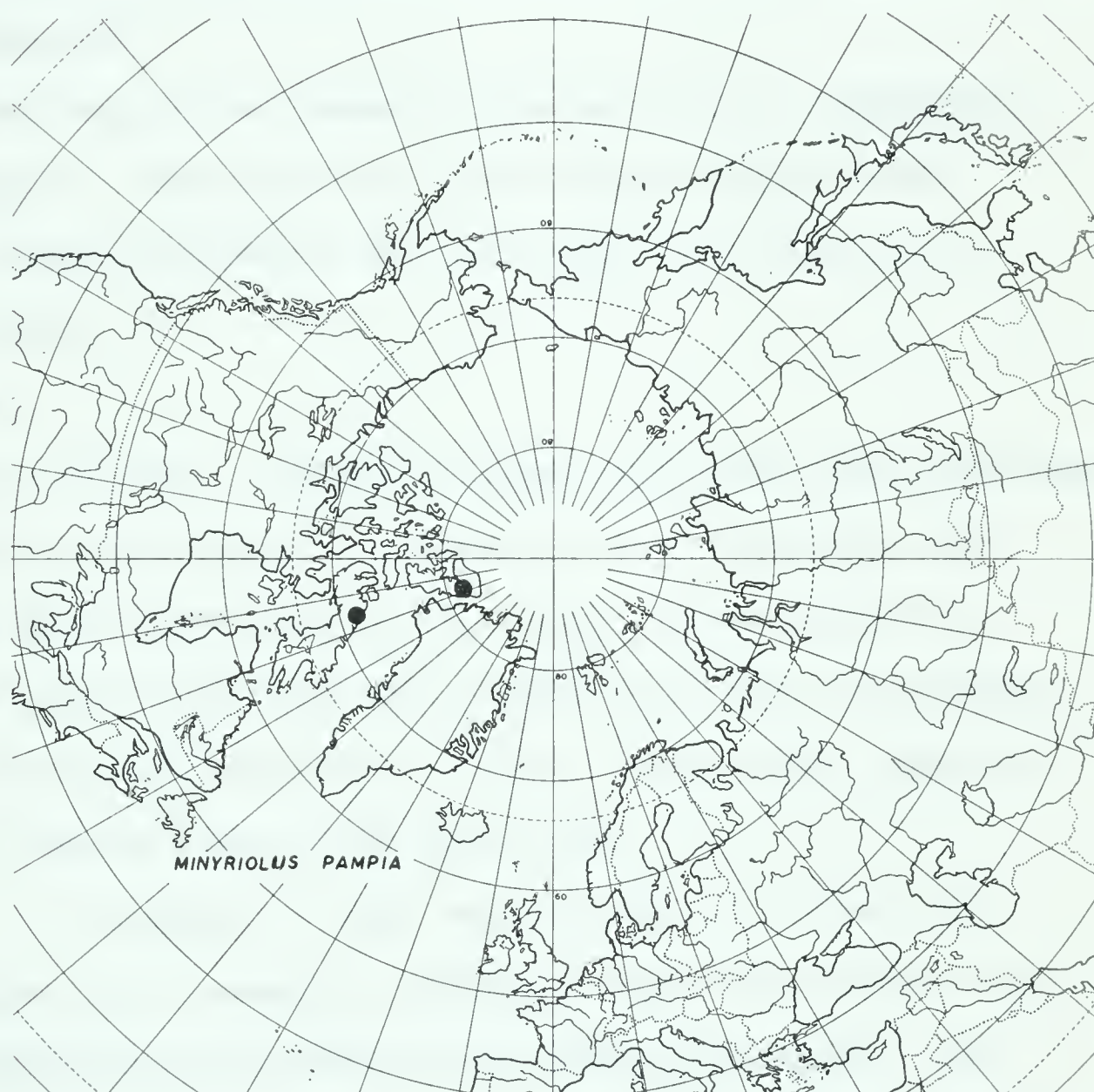


Figure 25. Distribution map of *Minyriolus pampia*.

Savignya barbata (Koch, 1879)

(Figures 58, 59, 60, 61)

Erigone barbata Koch, 1879-60.

Savignia barbata: Roewer, 1942-623, vol. 1.

Typhochraestus barbatus: Bonnet, 1959-4745, Tome II, vol.5.

Notes on Taxonomy

The spelling of the generic name should be "Savignya", not "Savignia". The genus was named after Julius César Savigny, a French biologist of the early 19th Century, by Blackwall (1833).

Description

Female. Colour: carapace brown with dark brown markings; chelicerae pale yellow with a brownish tint; sternum dark brown; legs pale yellow-brown with small brown splotches; opisthosoma gray-black with four small pale gray to reddish spots on the dorsum; spinnerets brown; coxae brown, gnathobases gray; labium brown with gray trim.

Structure: size small, about 1.80 mm long; carapace broad and rounded, slightly longer than wide, 0.62x 0.57 mm; carapace raised behind the cephalic region, and sloping down to the eyes; one anterior median eye about 0.5 diameters of a lateral; anterior row in a straight line; anterior medians about two diameters of one from the laterals; posterior row slightly procurved; posterior medians slightly more than two diameters of one apart, and about two diameters of one from the laterals; posterior eyes equal or subequal in

size; median ocular quadrangle wider posteriorly than anteriorly; posterior medians about as far apart as the quadrangle is long.

Chelicerae reclined; sternum wider than long, proportions are 1:2.1; legs moderately short; tibia I-II with two spines, tibia III-IV with one spine; Tm I about 0.52; Tm II about 0.46; Tm III about 0.42; Tm IV lacking.

Male. Colour: the male is coloured like the female.

Structure: the male is structurally like the female except for the following features. Size small, about 1.68 mm long; carapace rounded, 0.62 mm long x 0.62 mm wide; Carapace raised into a cephalic lobe; cephalic pits opening out to horizontal grooves that run posteriorly the full length of the cephalic lobe.

Eyes small; posterior row decidedly procurved; posterior medians at the top front edge of the cephalic lobe and almost five diameters of one apart; posterior laterals about two diameters of an anterior median; eyes of posterior row about equally spaced; anterior row slightly recurved; anterior medians about the diameter of one apart, and about five diameters of one from the laterals; laterals about two diameters of a median in size; anterior and posterior laterals on a small, common tubercle.

Clypeus height about ten diameters of an anterior median eye; clypeus pubescent with short, stiff, straight, pale-coloured hairs; tibia I-II with two spines; tibia III-IV with

one spine; Tm I about 0.58; Tm II about 0.54; Tm III about 0.50; Tm IV lacking.

Natural History

Habitat

This species is a member of the humid arctic faunal element. It was found only in the gravelly sections of river deltas with scattered surface vegetation. The webs are built in the cracks in the ground and rarely on the surface. It appears to overwinter on or near the surface under rocks and in vegetation.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

Figure 26 indicates the most active period of the summer season for the males. It is not known if the adults overwinter.

Material Examined

About 100 adults of this species were examined from Hazen Camp, one female from Thule, Greenland (personal collection), and five males and five females from Weatherhall Bay, Melville Island (Larry Law, collector, 1964).

Distribution

Siberia (exact locality I could not find). Novaya Zemlya. Spitsbergen. Greenland (Etah; and Thule). Ellesmere Island (Hazen Camp). Melville Island.

This species is Holarctic in distribution, but it is known only from the high arctic.

Figure 27 is a map of the distribution of this species.

GRAPH SHOWING FREQUENCY
DISTRIBUTION OF MALES AND FEMALES
of Savignya barbata
DURING THE SUMMER OF 1964

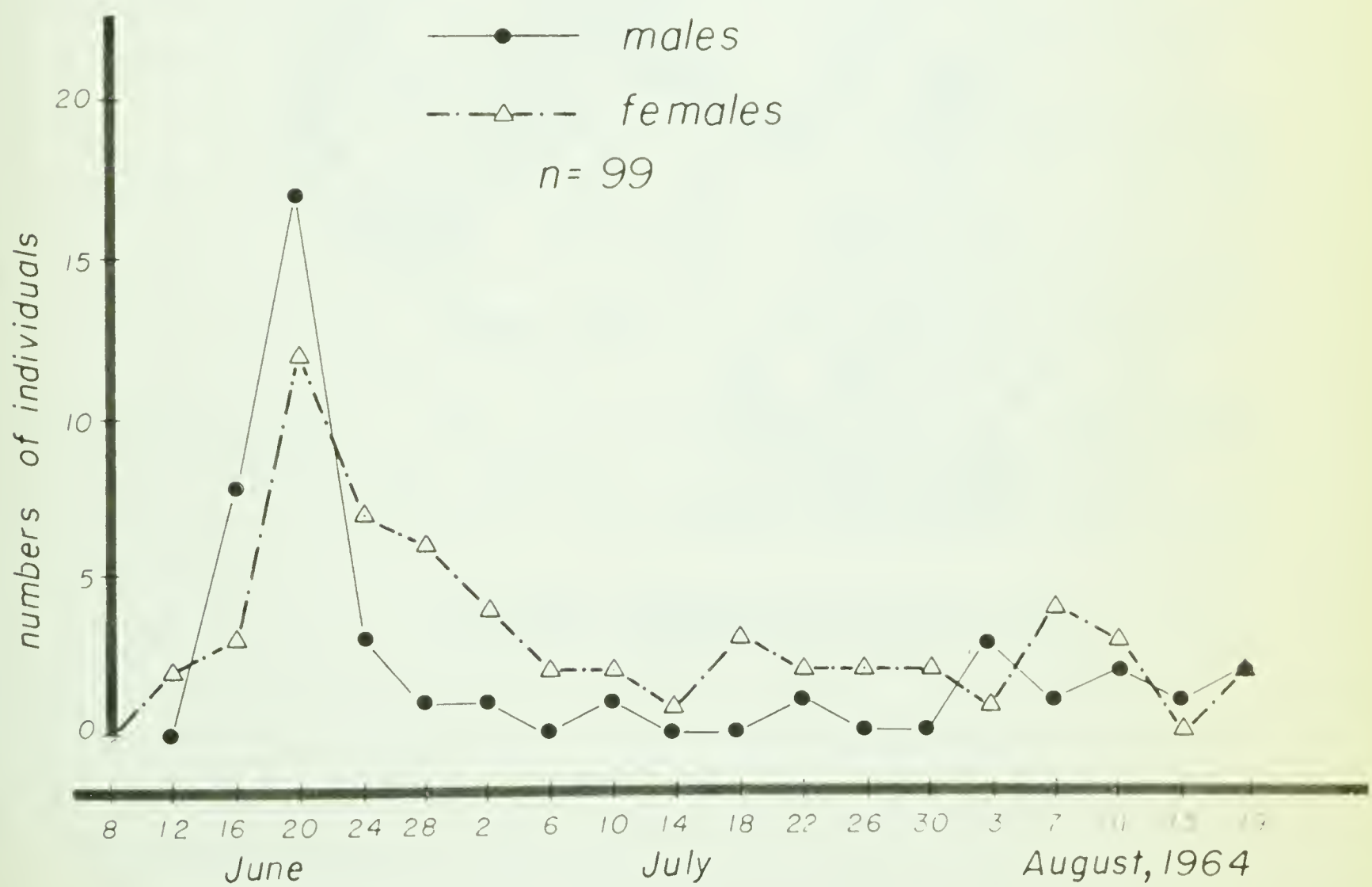


Fig. 26.

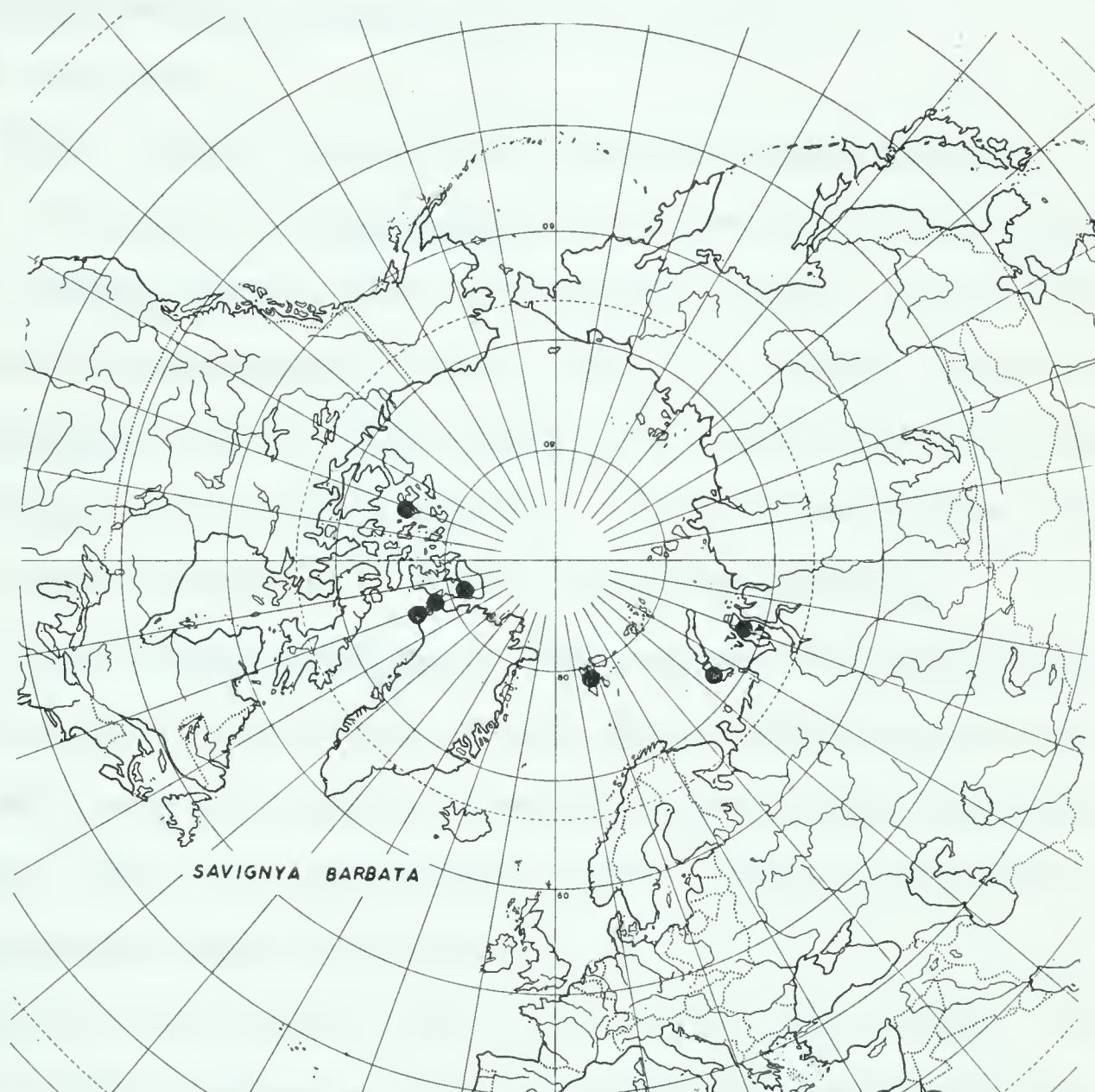


Figure 27. Distribution map of *Savignya barbata*.

Typhochraestus latithorax (Strand, 1905)

(Figures 54, 55, 56, 57)

Tarsiphantes latithorax Strand, 1905-23.

Tarsiphantes latithorax: Bonnet, 1959-4262, Tome II,
vol. 5.

Typhochraestus latithorax: Holm, 1960b-511.

Notes on Taxonomy

In 1905, Strand erected the new genus Tarsiphantes, with the one species, latithorax. The species was described from one damaged female and one subadult female. Holm (1960) synonymized Tarsiphantes Strand, 1905, as a junior synonym of Typhochraestus, Simon, 1884, based on a study of the holotype of latithorax. The holotype had in the meantime become dried and even more damaged than when Strand described it.

The genus Typhochraestus is determined and defined by the characters of the palpus of the male, which has a large, spiral embolus with a small, somewhat-spiral basal apophysis (see Holm, 1943 - 19; and Wiehle, 1960 - 330). The males of latithorax have these features.

Strand's description (1905 -23 to 26) is so vague, I am unable to judge whether or not Collinsia Pickard-Cambridge, 1913, is a synonym of Tarsiphantes, Strand, 1905. Despite the affinities that this species shows with the genus Collinsia, I am leaving it in the genus Typhochraestus because of Simon's original definition of the genus Typhochraestus.

Strand reports (1905 -23) that "Diese neue Gattung, deren Type und einzige Art die neue T. (Tarsiphantes) latithorax Strand ist,wurde am Rice Strait, 30/6 1898 entdeckt....".

However, the ship "Fram" did not reach Rice Strait until at least August 17, 1898, so either the year or the month is in error. During June 1899, Dr. Johan Svenden, the "Fram's" doctor, did some collecting at Fort Juliana (79°03'N, 77°43' W). About August 12, 1899, the "Fram" left the Rice Strait for Payer Harbour, and later Jones Sound (Bryce, 1910 - 245). Thus, it is more likely that Fort Juliana is the actual collecting site for this species. Rice Strait (78°34'N, 74°45'W) is close to Fort Juliana.

Description

Female. Colour: carapace brown, marked and shaded with dark brown; chelicerae brown; sternum brown; labium brown, but marked with gray; coxae of pedipalpi brown, but gnathobases gray; legs pale brown-yellow, distal part of each leg segment brownish; opisthosoma brown-gray; spinnerets brown-gray.

Structure: size small, about 1.90 mm total length; carapace longer than wide, 0.64 mm long x 0.54 mm wide; carapace broad and rounded, gradually rising to the low cephalic region ; clypeus height about five diameters of an anterior median eye; posterior row of eyes slightly pro-curved; posterior medians about 1.5 diameters of one apart,

and closer to the posterior laterals than to each other; anterior row of eyes slightly procurved; anterior medians less than the diameter of one apart, and about the diameter of one from the laterals; anterior laterals almost twice the size of an anterior median; median ocular quadrangle about as wide at posterior medians as long; chelicerae decidedly reclined; sternum about as wide as long; legs moderately long; metatarsus IV about 1.45 times longer than tarsus IV; tibia I-III with two spines, tibia IV with one spine at 0.29; Tm I about 0.63; Tm II about 0.54; Tm III about 0.48; Tm IV lacking.

Male. Colour: the male is coloured like the female.

Structure: size small, about 1.45 mm; carapace longer than wide, about 0.64 mm long x 0.54 mm wide; carapace structure like that of the female, except for a small, post-ocular sulcus and lobe that is finely-bridged and connecting behind each posterior median eye (see figures 55, 56); metatarsus IV about 1.29 times longer than tarsus IV; tibia I-III with two spines, tibia IV with one spine; Tm I about 0.56; Tm II about 0.53; Tm III about 0.50; Tm IV lacking.

For the characteristic details of the pedipalp of the male, see figure 54.

Natural History

Habitat

This species is a member of the humid arctic faunal

element. The species is widely distributed throughout soggy, vegetated areas at and near pond edges, but is restricted to the night shadow areas. Individuals have been collected under water in slush snow at the time of the spring melt, and on wet, south-facing slopes and depressions abounding with sedges or mosses.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

Figure 28 shows the abundance pattern of the species during the summer of 1964. It is not known if the adults overwinter, but it can be assumed that they do, as the adults are found so early in the season.

Material Examined

About 100 adult individuals of this species were examined from Hazen Camp. The holotype was not seen.

Distribution

This species is known from two localities only, both on Ellesmere Island at Hazen Camp and either Rice Strait ($78^{\circ}34'N$, $74^{\circ}45'W$), OR Fort Juliana ($79^{\circ}03'N$, $77^{\circ}43'W$).

Figure 29 is a distribution map of this species.

GRAPH SHOWING FREQUENCY
DISTRIBUTION OF MALES AND FEMALES
OF Typhochraestus latithorax
DURING THE SUMMER OF 1964

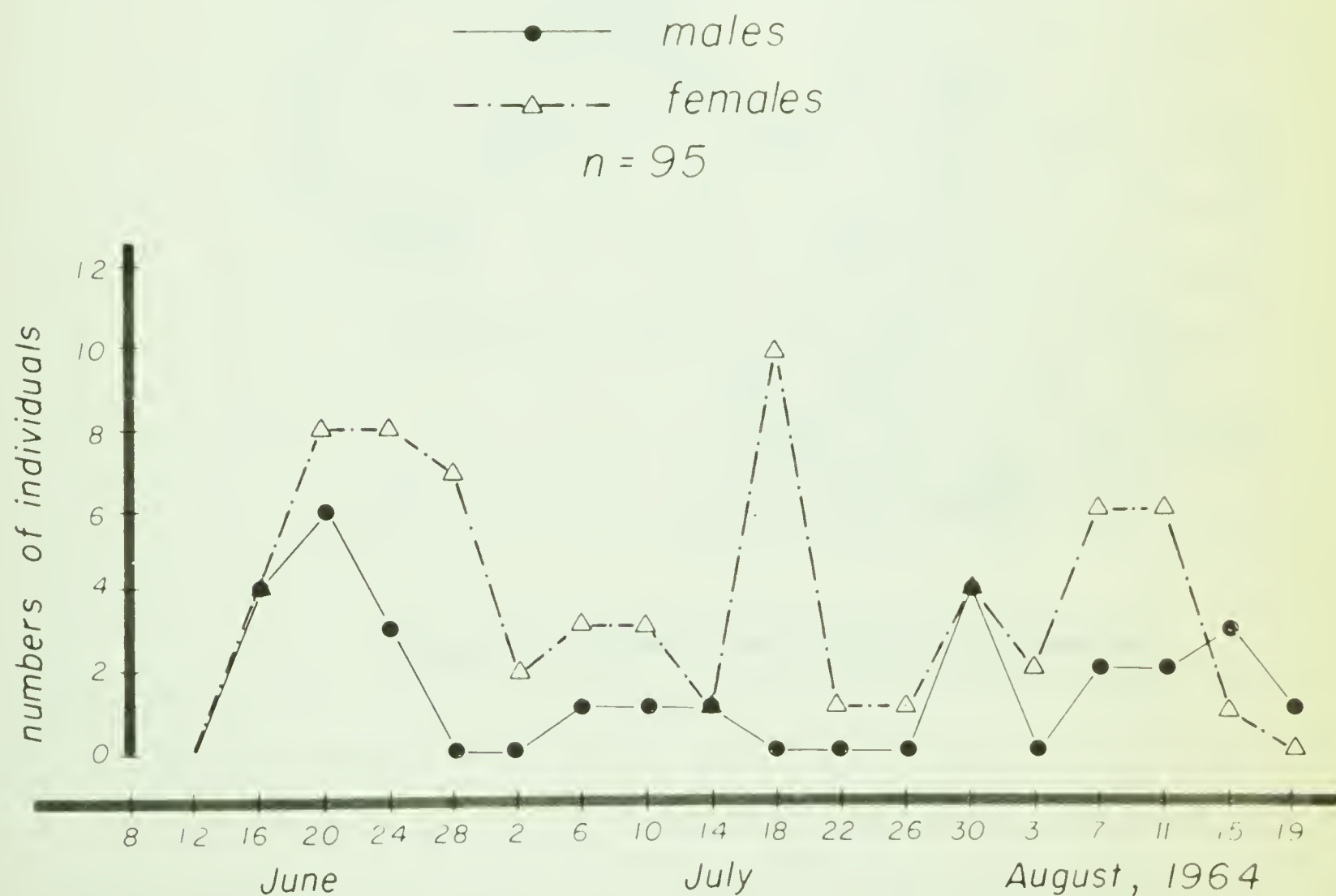


Fig. 28.



Figure 29. Distribution map of *Typhochraestus latithorax*.

Xysticus deichmanni Soerensen, 1898

(Figures 40, 41)

Xysticus deichmanni Soerensen, 1898-228

Xysticus labradorensis: Bonnet, 1959-4883, Tome II,
vol. 5, (in part).

Xysticus deichmanni: Holm, 1958b-533.

Xysticus deichmanni: Buckle and Redner, 1964-1139.

Notes on Taxonomy

Holm (1958b) and Buckle and Redner (1964) have distinguished the species labradorensis from deichmanni. The distribution records of the two species do not overlap geographically.

Natural History

Habitat

This species is a member of the arid arctic faunal element. Individuals at Hazen Camp were found with Dictyna borealis under and around Dryas integrifolia. The main difference observed about the habitat of the two species is that X. deichmanni remains mostly on the ground under and beside vegetation (occasionally in the Dryas flowers), whereas D. borealis is mostly on and in the vegetation. X. deichmanni was found mainly under and near Dryas integrifolia clumps, but occasionally near Salix arctica and Kobresia myosuroides.

Seasonal Occurrence of Adults

Figure 30 shows the occurrence of the adults of this species during the summer of 1964. Data from 1963 are almost identical. The adults are able to overwinter, as is

GRAPH SHOWING FREQUENCY
DISTRIBUTION OF MALES AND FEMALES
OF *Xysticus deichmanni*
DURING THE SUMMER OF 1964

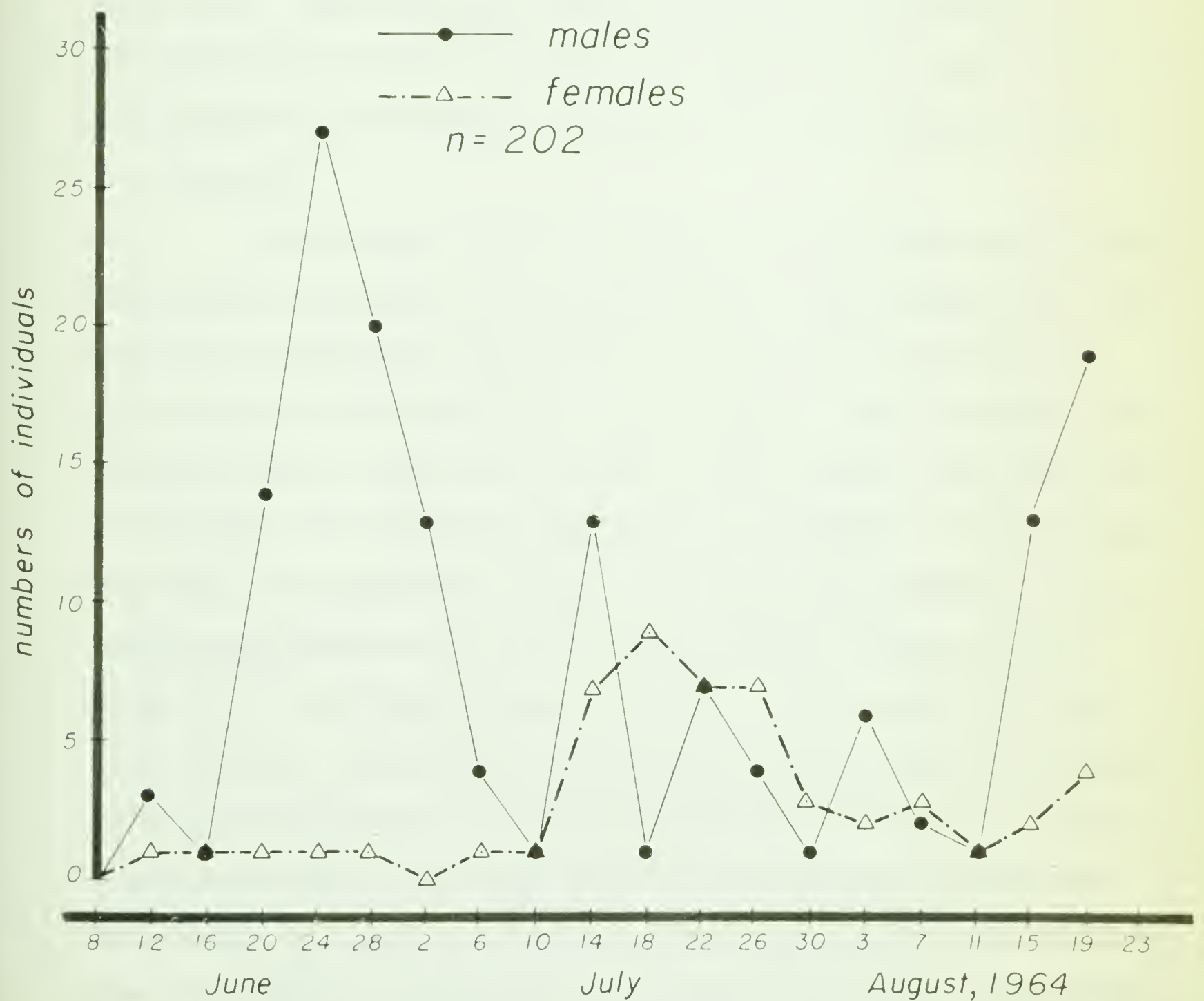


Fig. 30.

indicated by the late season increase.

Courtship

The Thomisidae have little or no courtship preceding mating (Kaston, 1936), and Xysticus deichmanni is no exception. In all four cases observed, the males mounted the females after a short contact or mounted directly upon contact without any hesitation. The females offered no resistance to any of the males. Once upon the females, the males tied down the females with silk. Silk threads were attached to the carapace to the patellae to the ground and back again many times. Once the female was thoroughly tied down, the male began to mate.

Mating

Before the actual mating, the male appeared to clean and polish the palpi in the chelicerae. Each palpus was very carefully rubbed and manipulated. When this was done, the male crawled back along the female, then around and under the posterior end of the opisthosoma of the female, then mated by alternately placing the palpi upon the epigynum. When mating, the pair are positioned venter to venter and facing the same direction (see Kaston, 1936). The duration of the matings were 5, 52, 55.5 and 59 minutes each. In the case lasting five minutes, the male was successful in placing each embolus within the epigynum once before leaving the female. In the remaining cases, each palpus was placed on the epigynum for an average of about 14 minutes. The haematodocha was refilled and the embolus re-inserted once every 20 seconds. When the haematodocha refilled, the large dorsal and some smaller lateral

spines on the legs of the male became erect for about two seconds, then gradually over the next three seconds, relaxed.

When the male was finished mating, he again crawled onto the dorsum of the female, polished the palpi in the chelicerae, paused, then fled rapidly. The males died about four days later.

Egg Laying and Egg-laying Site

As of October 8, 1964, no eggs were laid. Thus it can be assumed that the fertilized females overwinter and lay eggs in the following summer. Gertsch (1964, pers. comm.) has confirmed this. Sometime between October 8 and 18, 1964, eggs were laid in a small sac on the flat edge of a rock. There were 28 eggs. The sac was lenticular, about six mm in diameter, and about two mm in thickness in the centre.

Food

The main food for the species seems to be small Diptera, especially Chironomidae and Culicidae. Oliver (1963, pers. comm.) found several instances where this species was feeding on the first instar larvae of Gynaephora rossi Curtis and G. groenlandica (Hom.) (Lymantriidae, Lepidoptera) as they emerged from the eggs on the cocoon of the female. The first instar larvae are only about one mm long, and present no difficulty in grasping for the spider. Oliver (pers. comm.) and I have also found specimens hiding in Dryas flowers, presumably to catch visiting insects.

Parasites and Predators

In 1963, one female was found with a parasite,

Hexamermis species (Nematomorpha, Mermithidae), inside the opisthosoma. The epigynum was abnormal, indicating parasitic castration within.

The contents of the crop and gizzard of two snow buntings showed remains of legs and carapace of X. deichmanni. There were also many observed case of cannibalism.

Material Examined

About 575 adults of this species were examined from Hazen Camp, and one male and one female from Chesterfield Inlet, N.W.T., and two females from Tanquary Fjord, Ellesmere Island (Guy Brassard, Collector, 1964).

Distribution

Greenland (N.E. Greenland between 70-78°N). Canada (Franklin District: near Ukpilik Lake, King's Bay, and Holman Island, Victoria Island; Hazen Camp and Tanquary Fjord, Ellesmere Island; Moose Bay, Bathurst Island; Lake Harbour, Baffin Island; mouth of the Aktinek River, Bylot Island, 70°N, 78°W; Keewatin District: N.W. side Aberdeen Lake; Chesterfield Inlet; Mackenzie District: Bathurst Inlet; Coppermine; Bernard Harbour; Yukon Territory: Firth River, 16 miles from the coast; Swede Dome, 34 miles W. Dawson City). Alaska (Mile 206, Richardson Highway; Nome; Point Barrow; Umiat; Meade River; and Coopers Landing).

Notes: Buckle and Redner (1964-1141) record the Richardson Highway as being in the Yukon. This locality is really in Alaska, 206 miles north of Anchorage. The Holman

Island locality referred to by these authors is most likely the townsite of Holman Island on Victoria Island, not the very small island off shore near the town. King's Bay, Victoria Island, for all intents and purposes, is the same locality as Holman Island.

Figure 31 is a distribution map of this species.

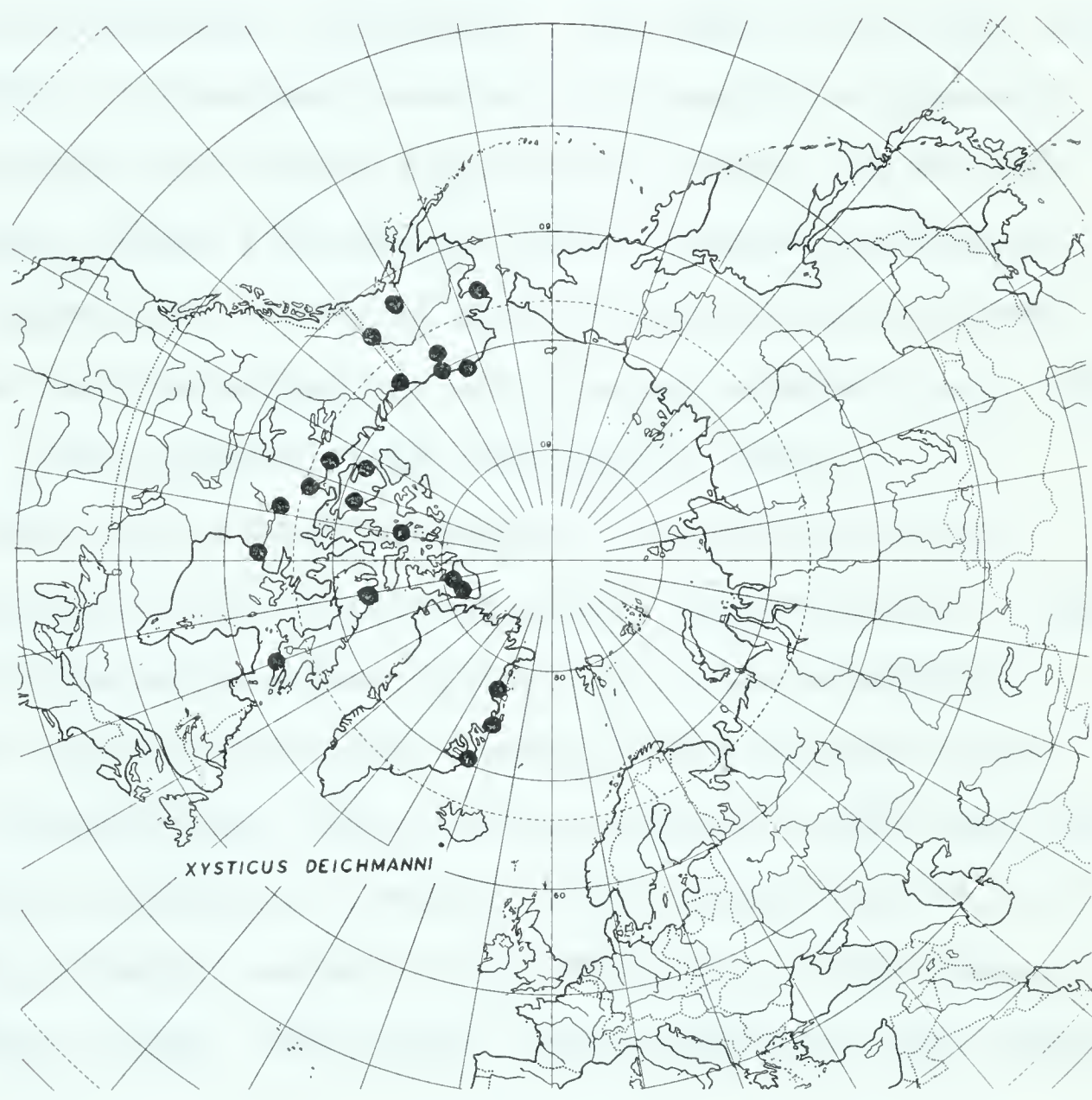


Figure 31. Distribution map of *Xysticus deichmanni*.

Zoogeographical Considerations

In 1934, Gelting, after an analysis of the botanical and geological evidence, proposed that the northeastern tip of Peary Land was ice free during the maximum of the ice ages, and that some other areas on Greenland were ice free during at least the Wisconsin Glaciation. The idea of ice free areas or "refugia" in Greenland, was not his though, as Kornerup (1878) proposed this after a geological study, and Warming (1888) again, after a botanical study. Heated controversy for and against the theory of glacial refugia has occurred since then and the subject is still being debated (Ball, 1963; Lindroth, 1963a; Benson, 1958; Nordhagen, 1963).

In 1937, Eric Hultén published a monumental work on phytogeography in the arctic and boreal regions based on the premise of glacial refugia. Since then, most biologists agree that ice-bound refugia existed during glacial times (Savile, 1961; Packer, 1962; various authors in Löve and Löve, 1963; various authors in Lowther, 1959, 1962; Lindroth, 1957, 1961, 1963a, 1963b; Larsson, 1959; Harington, 1964; Hammer, 1955; Böcher et al., 1957; Ball, 1963; Svårdson, 1961; McPhail, 1961).

The basic premise upon which biologists have based theories of glacial refugia (other than on geological evidence) is a more or less limited distribution of a species or of many species. The locality or area of the distribution is also held as significant. The greater the number of species in an area that have not (yet) been found in other areas, the greater the

possibility that the area was a refugium. Fine! But the number of known species from an area is most often directly proportional to the thoroughness of collecting that has been done.

No area in Canada is as thoroughly collected as the Hazen Camp area. This fact alone would ordinarily bias distribution patterns beyond use for zoogeographic purposes unless some criterion other than taxonomy is used.

I am therefore introducing data from insects and spiders, based on morphology, vagility, and biology, and some geological evidence, to support a suggestion that the northern part of Ellesmere Island had ice free areas during the Wisconsin Glacial division (and perhaps more divisions within the Pleistocene epoch) that served as glacial refugia.

Studies at Hazen Camp have uncovered about 350 species of insects, arachnids and Collembola, including several new species of Homoptera (Richards, 1963, 1964a, 1964b), Diptera (Oliver, 1963, and pers. comm.), Coleoptera (W.J. Brown, unpublished manuscript, and J.A. Downes, 1964), Hymenoptera (W.R.M. Mason, pers. comm.), and Acarina (E. Lindquist, pers. comm.). Except for two species of Ichneumonidae that are over five mm long that are scarce, the bulk of the new material from Hazen Camp is small (less than four mm long) and of generally cryptic, unstudied and poorly collected groups.

There are about 75 species of flightless insects in the Hazen Camp area. Most of them are brachypterous and some are

apterous, but two species are fully winged. The females of the winged species cannot fly because of the heavy abdomen; the males of both species are excellent fliers (Oliver, pers. comm.). Flightlessness in insects is not a rapidly developed feature, especially in peripheral or marginal regions, where species cannot get the extra energy necessary for morphological experimenting, and where emphasis is on feeding and breeding. I therefore suggest that these flightless insects have been on northern Ellesmere Island for part, if not all, of the Pleistocene epoch. Gressitt (1964-595), in contrary opinion, states that selection favouring loss of wings in insects, particularly Diptera, on Campbell Island, is probably proceeding at a rapid rate. At Hazen Camp, however, no apterous Diptera were found, so either Gressitt's theory is wrong or else the flightless condition develops in insects at different rates in different areas (my inference), or for different reasons.

To date, there are 14 species of Collembola and about 80 species of Acarina known from the Hazen Camp area. However, I do not believe that these two groups can be used for refugium analysis as they have the ability to colonize readily in areas where no other arthropod can and they do so very rapidly (Gressitt et al., 1963, and Gressitt and Collaborators, 1964). The method of this rapid dispersal may be by wind (Gressitt et al., 1963, and Gressitt and Collaborators, 1964) and by individuals and/or eggs on clods of dirt on birds' feet.

Thus there is no way of calculating when these two groups came into an area.

Several species of spiders have probably remained on northern Ellesmere Island during most or all of the Pleistocene epoch. Tarentula exasperans was never observed to have a drag line, a feature that might be analogous to flightlessness in insects (H.W. Levi, pers. comm.), and Pardosa glacialis and Xysticus deichmanni have drag lines that are so weak that they would not support the weight of even a third instar, a feature that might be analogous to brachyptery in insects (my inference).

In contrast, several immatures of Dictyna borealis were observed ballooning in early July, 1964. Braendegaard (1937, 1938) has made similar observations in Greenland and elsewhere. The remaining species of spiders, all Linyphiidae, have strong drag lines, indicating possibly recent immigration to the Hazen Camp area.

It appears that there are two basic zoogeographical groups of spiders at Hazen Camp: one group of three species that has withstood the Wisconsin Glaciation and probably most or all of the Pleistocene epoch on northern Ellesmere Island, and a second group that may have moved into the area recently.

The second group, that is, the recent immigrants, appears to have had two sources, one from the arctic zone and the other from the boreal or low arctic zone. Two species of Linyphiidae, Typhochraestus latithorax and Minyriolus pampia, are confined to the night shadow area, and are thus possibly

not yet adapted to the arctic light conditions. These night shadow areas are sunny during the day, but shaded during the period that would be night in the temperate regions. The shadow regions are often cooler "at night" than the sunny regions, hence these two species appear to have a diurnal rhythm. On this basis I suggest that these two species are recent immigrants from the temperate or low arctic regions. The remaining species of Linyphiidae are not confined to the night shadow regions. They display full adaptation to the arctic conditions of light. Their general Holarctic distribution indicates this as well.

Taxonomic evidence that the northern end of Ellesmere Island may have been a refugium is based on an analysis of Muskoxen skulls by Harington (1964). Gjaerevoll (1963-280) states that there was a refugium somewhere in the Queen Elizabeth Islands, though he does not give reasons nor references.

The geological evidence of a refugium on Ellesmere Island is divided. Hattersley-Smith (1964-284) suggests that any ice that might have been on the plateau between Lake Hazen and Alert was protective rather than erosive, as it is unlikely that the soft silts and lignite would have been preserved in an area where they are in part covered by a piedmont glacier at the present time. On the other hand, widespread erratics have been found in this area, though the date of deposition is not known.

I do not believe that during the Ice Ages of the Pleistocene epoch that conditions were ever as severe as most are led to believe. It is fully possible that the conditions were so poor for several years in succession that the ice and snow did not melt off the ground, but equally possible that one season in four or five, or even ten, with favourable conditions melted the ice and snow and permitted life and growth to continue. Thus, even though there were about one and one-half million years in the Pleistocene epoch (Ericson et al., 1964), the effective time available for arthropods to have been active may have been as little as three hundred thousand years. If the Pleistocene epoch is shortened to three hundred thousand years as some authors believe it should be, then these animals have had even less time to evolve the flightless condition.

In summary, it appears that there is one fauna on northern Ellesmere Island that has been there since before the Wisconsin Glaciation and perhaps for the duration of the Pleistocene epoch, and another fauna that may have immigrated to northern Ellesmere Island in post-Wisconsin times.

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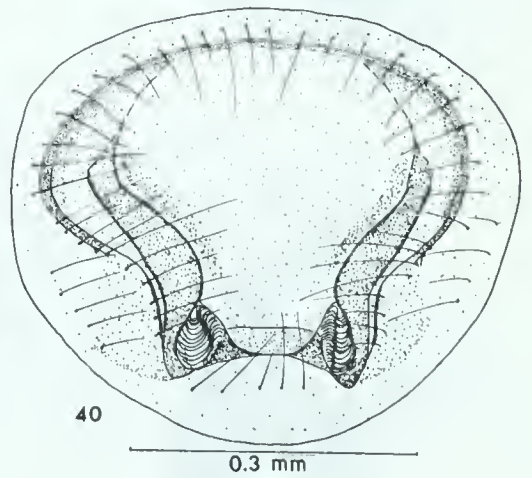
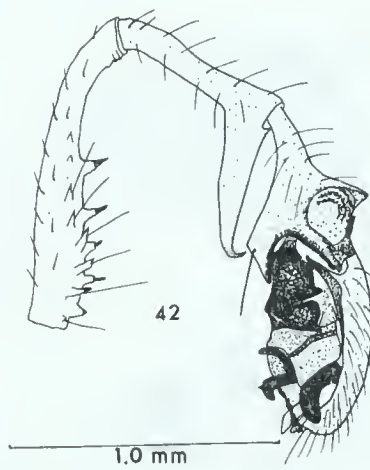
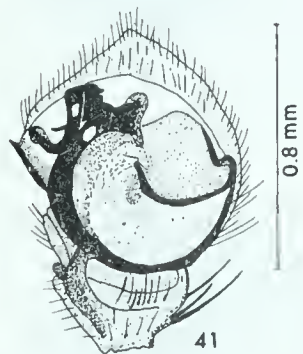
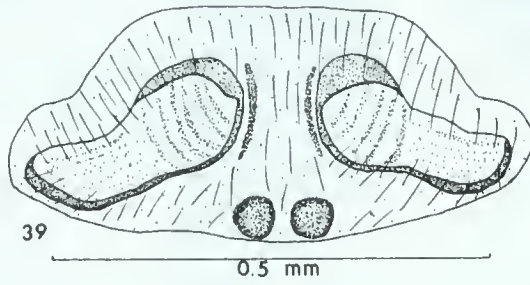
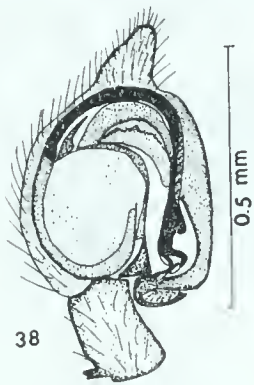
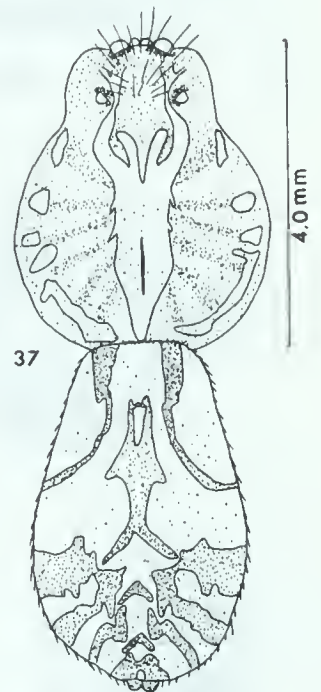
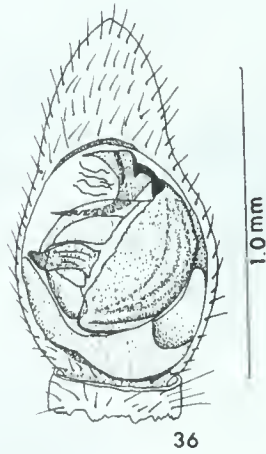
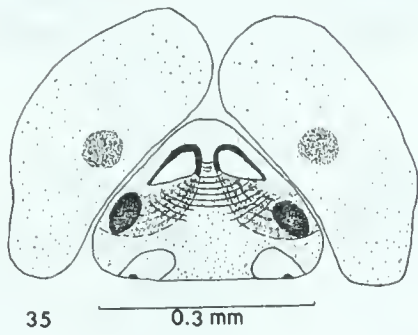
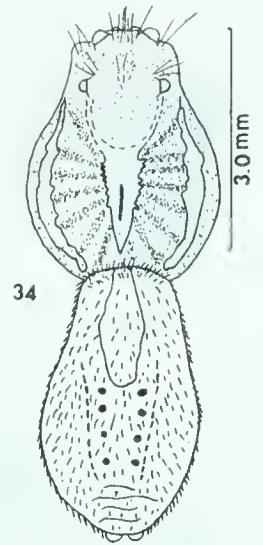
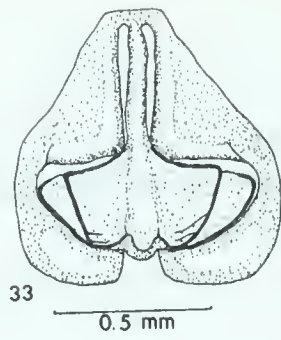
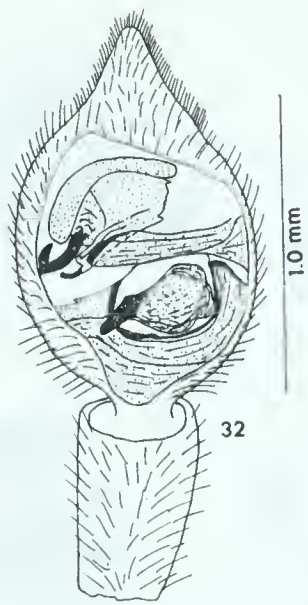
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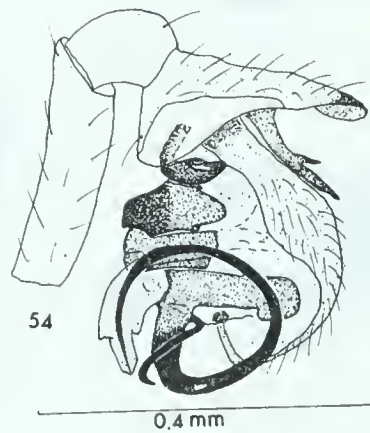
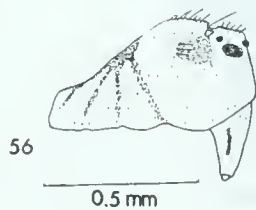
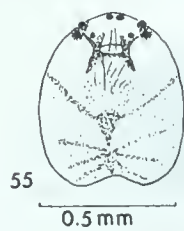
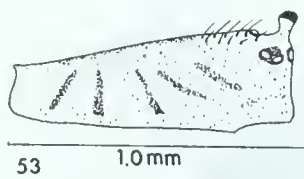
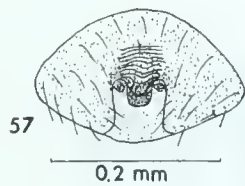
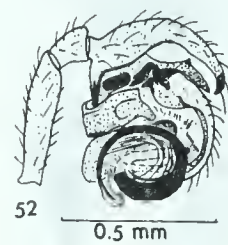
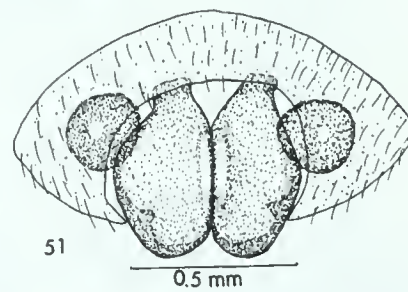
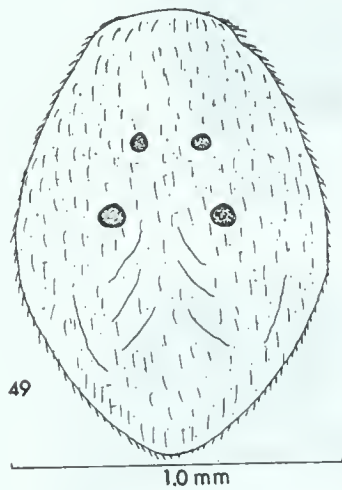
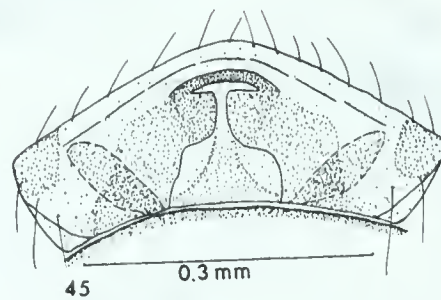
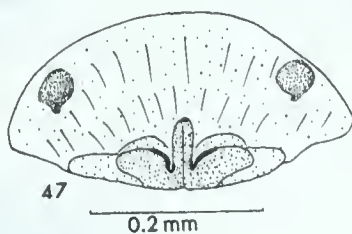
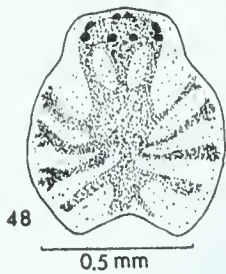
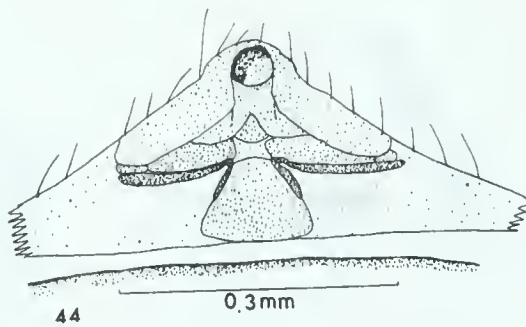
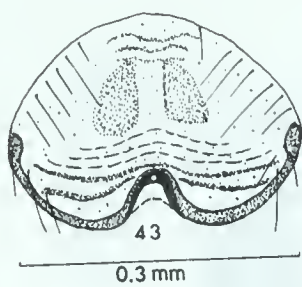
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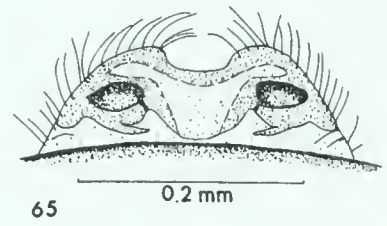
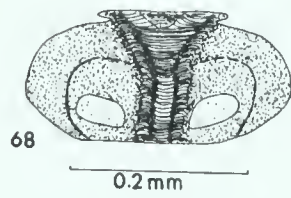
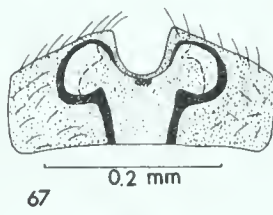
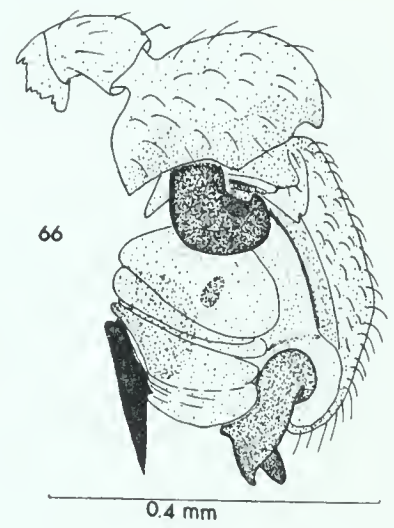
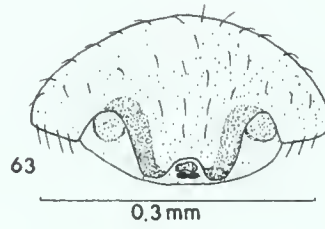
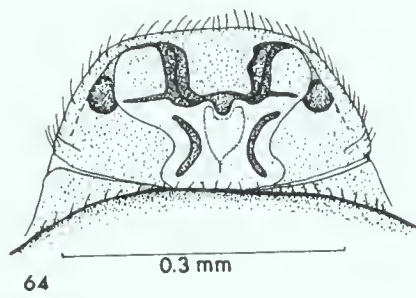
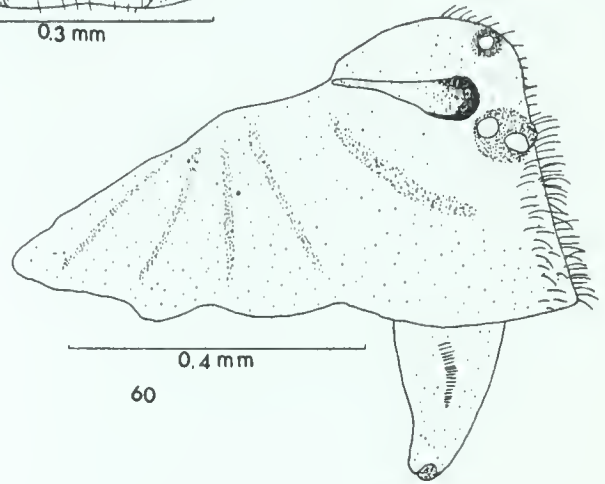
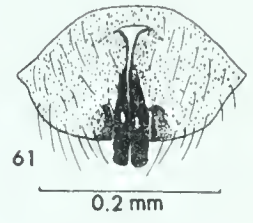
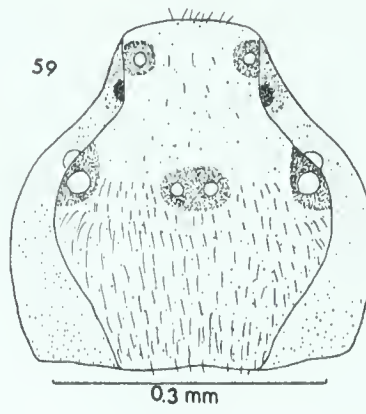
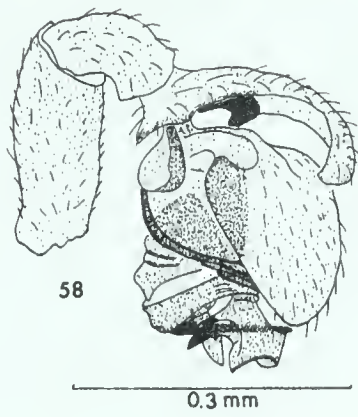
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